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ABSTRACT

This guide describes classroom and school interventions intended to meet the needs of students with emotional/behavioral disabilities and those at risk for developing these disabilities. The first section presents "Classroom Interventions," a compilation of 77 interventions which may be used in regular or self-contained classrooms. A brief description and source of further information are given for each intervention. Among the interventions described are the following: acceptance, active listening, aerobic exercise, anger management, art therapy, assertiveness training, behavior contracts, bibliotherapy, chaining, "Circle of Friends," classroom discipline plans, cooperative learning strategies, differential reinforcement of incompatible behaviors, direct instruction, discipline with dignity, early childhood interventions, functional analysis, home notes, mentoring, play therapy, prereferral intervention, reality therapy, relaxation training, self control curriculum, self-monitoring, social skills training, stress management, time out, and values clarification. The section on school interventions describes the following program interventions: the Boys Town Model, the CHAMPS (Children are Making Progress in School) program, the Commonwealth classroom, the COMP (Classroom Organization and Management Program) approach, the continuum of services for managing student behavior, Hewett's classroom management plan, and the Re-Ed model. Two extensive appendices provide additional information on implementing interventions, including record-keeping forms, examples, and guidelines. (Contains approximately 110 references and recommended readings.)

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Organizing Systems to Support Competent Social Behavior in Children and Youth

ED 380 971

Interventions

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Introduction

Interventions is the third document in the series *Organizing Systems to Support Competent Social Behavior in Children and Youth* to be published by the WRRC. Other titles in the same series include *Model Programs and Services*, *Prevention*, and *Teacher Stress and Burnout*. The series seeks to examine and analyze current thinking and best strategies for:

- Promoting good mental health and socially competent behaviors among students;
- Preventing the development of emotional/behavioral disabilities and student involvement in gangs and violent actions by using strategies such as screening and early intervention, schoolwide discipline plans, and positive alternatives to violence and gang activities;
- Developing programs to meet the needs of students with emotional/behavioral disabilities as well as those at risk for developing these disabilities at the district, building, and classroom level; and
- Addressing the issues of stress and burnout among teachers who work with students with emotional/behavioral disabilities.

The interventions described in this document have been divided into two sections--Classroom Interventions and School Interventions. The Classroom Interventions portion of the document is a compilation of 77 interventions, presented in alphabetical order, which may be used in the regular classroom or self-contained classrooms for students with emotional and/or behavioral disabilities. ALL students may benefit from these interventions, especially those students with challenging behavioral problems.

Many of these interventions can be implemented without great cost in time, materials or money. But, as Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis (1993) point out, "Nothing is free. The time required to implement the suggested techniques should be viewed by teachers as a wise investment. While some initial teacher time and planning are needed, the techniques will provide educational dividends in managing difficult students in the long run that clearly outweigh the initial investments" (p. 1).

The School Interventions section discusses seven programs and models which have proven effective for students with significant behavioral needs who may need more intensive treatments than can be offered in the regular classroom and may require placement in segregated classrooms, at least at certain times. Many of the strategies discussed in the Classroom Interventions section may work effectively with these students as well.

Supplemental information for Classroom Interventions is included in Appendix A; information that supplements the School Interventions section is included in Appendix B.

The strategies included in this document complement the prevention strategies included in the document in this series entitled *Organizing Systems to Support Competent Social Behavior in Children and Youth: Prevention*. In particular, the section of the *Prevention* document devoted to School-wide Discipline and Classroom Management Plans includes proactive strategies that promote consistency and are effective in preventing the development and escalation of behavioral problems among students.

HONORING CULTURAL DIVERSITY

The choice of interventions used with students should acknowledge and respect each student's culture, including his or her culture's belief system, family orientation, religion, language and history (Peterson & Ishii-Jordan, 1994). Interventions should be planned that are culturally appropriate and can be generalized when students return to their home environments. "Generalization does not occur unless the entire social context of a student is considered prior to implementation. That includes the student's family, significant adults and peers, cultural expectations, familial dynamics, and social status" (Peterson & Ishii-Jordan, p. 259).

It is estimated that by the year 2000, approximately 40 percent of clients in service delivery systems will be members of minority groups (Benjamin, 1992). With this in mind, it is prudent to develop and implement culturally competent systems of care to improve services to children from minority backgrounds and their families.

Charles (1992) maintains that recognition by educators that behavioral diversity is a natural phenomenon can help teachers greatly in reducing the occurrence of discipline problems in the classroom. Such understanding empowers teachers to do the following:

1. Accept the fact that neither individual students nor groups of students behave in exactly the same ways, nor do they need to do so.
2. Help all students find a sense of belonging in the class—as valued members—while recognizing and accepting that difference will sometimes be seen in how students try to meet that need.
3. Treat all students with courtesy and respect, regardless of whether they are boisterous, compliant, meek, or withdrawn, and insist that students treat each other with the same respect.
4. Show unending commitment to helping students be successful in school regardless of how individual students may behave.

5. Provide for extensive interaction among members of the class, as a means of building togetherness and pride in the classroom. Invite to the class adult members of the community who provide positive models.

6. Increase the amount of cooperative classroom work, recognizing that most students prefer cooperation and behave better in that mode.

7. Stress the importance of students helping each other and learning from each other.

8. Recognize the importance of taking time to discuss class problems and explain the reasons for work provided.

9. Give students a greater role in classroom governance, especially in deciding on rules of conduct and procedures for resolving conflict. The resultant rules and consequences should then be clearly stated and discussed.

10. Stay out of power struggles that pit teacher against student, by learning not to take personal offense when misbehavior occurs, but rather to behave sensitively in resolving the cause of the problem. For teacher sanity, this point is crucial. Teachers expend enormous amounts of psychic energy struggling against students—against apathy, disrespectful behavior, and failure to do assigned work. It is that struggle that frustrates teachers and burns them out (pp. 148 - 149).

Classroom Interventions

ACCEPTANCE

It is important for teachers to accept students' differing abilities, temperaments, and personal strengths and weaknesses. A teacher's acceptance of students "means that he or she continues to be fair, consistent, and professional even when they have tested his or her tolerance unmercifully" (Rockwell, 1993, p. 14). In the classroom, acceptance of every student by the teacher leads to acceptance by the students of one another and of themselves.

INFORMATION SOURCES

Rockwell, S. (1993) *Tough to reach: Tough to teach.* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

ACTIVE LISTENING

Active listening is the "process of decoding a student's uniquely coded message and then trying to give feedback" (Epanchin, 1991, p. 440). In active listening the adult pays close attention to what the student is communicating both verbally and non-verbally and conveys an awareness to the student that he or she is listening and interested in what the student is saying.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Epanchin, B. C. (1991). Teaching social behavior. In J. L. Paul & B. C. Epanchin (Eds.), *Educating emotionally disturbed children and youth: Theories and practices for teachers.* (pp. 413 - 447). New York: Macmillan.

ADOPTION BY A TEACHER

Students with emotional/behavioral problems may have a special teacher with whom they have a positive relationship. This teacher may "adopt" a student as a special concern. The student may check in with this teacher on a daily basis, and talk over issues and concerns. The teacher may in turn offer guidance to help the student toward improved behavior (Program Standards, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES

Program standards and guidelines for special education and special services in Hawaii. (1993). Honolulu: Office of Instructional Services/Community and Special Education Branch. Department of Education.

AEROBIC EXERCISE

A regular program of aerobic exercise can improve students' mental as well as physical health. An aerobics program provides students with a popular, highly visible group activity that can improve coordination, physical fitness, and self-concept (Godar, 1988). Any exercise program should be developed with the cooperation of the school physical education staff. The only required materials are a tape recorder, audio aerobic workout tapes, and exercise clothing.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Godar, P. G. (1988). Aerobic A-Team: Classroom exercise program for rural middle school students with emotional disabilities. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, 9(2), 41 - 44.

AGGRESSION-ALTERNATIVE SKILLS

Aggressive adolescents often display widespread interpersonal, planning, aggression management, and other prosocial skill deficiencies (Goldstein, 1989). Using similar techniques to SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING (see page 50)—modeling, role playing, performance feedback, and transfer training—students can be taught aggression-alternative skills (Goldstein). These skills may include: 1) beginning social skills, 2) advanced social skills, 3) skills for dealing with feelings, 4) skill alternatives to aggression, (5) skills for dealing with stress, and 6) planning skills. Each skill in the curriculum "is broken down into a small number of behavioral steps. The steps are the skill. They are what the trainers model and what each trainee role plays" (Goldstein, p. 179).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Goldstein, A.P. (1989). Teaching alternatives to aggression. In D. Biklin, D. Ferguson, & A. Ford (Eds.), *Schooling and disability: Eighty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II*) pp. 168-194). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

ANALYZING BEHAVIOR

Analyzing behavior can help determine what function students' behavior is serving, and why they behave as they do, at given times under certain circumstances (Wright, Gurman, & the California Association of School Psychologists, 1994). A guide to analyzing behavior has been reprinted on page 87 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES

Wright, D. B., Gurman, H. B., & the California Association of School Psychologists/Diagnostic Center Positive Intervention Task Force. (1994). *Positive intervention for serious behavior problems.* Sacramento: Resources in Special Education.

ANGER MANAGEMENT

Anger management is intended to counteract aggressive behaviors that interfere with students' interpersonal relationships at school and at home and to teach students how to express anger in ways that are less destructive for themselves as well as others. Constructive management of anger means "making changes in thoughts, feelings, and behavioral responses to provocations that stimulate an anger response" (Eggert, 1994). Anger management programs include:

- Analyzing mood patterns and identifying triggers for anger, anxiety, and depression;
- Setting goals for anger management, linking thoughts with feelings and actions;
- Practicing and applying techniques to manage escalating anger and mood swings;
- Giving and receiving support for controlling anger and emotional spirals; and
- Monitoring anger and other moods, revising goals as needed, celebrating successes, and preventing relapses (Eggert, 1994).

Schools are a logical place for anger management interventions. Schools provide students access to a variety of social interactions with peers, teachers, and parents. The school setting offers opportunities for both "deviant peer bonding and prosocial bonding" (Eggert, 1994). Anger management may be a part of the regular curriculum or offered as an elective class.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Eggert, L. L. (1994). *Anger management for youth: Stemming aggression and violence.* Bloomington: National Education Service.

Furlong, M. J., & Smith, D. C. (Eds.) (1994). *Anger, hostility, and aggression: Assessment, prevention and intervention strategies for youth.* Brandon, VT: Clinical Psychology.

Goldstein, A. P., Glick, B., Reiner, S., Zimmerman, D., & Country, T. M. (1987). *Aggression replacement training: A comprehensive intervention for aggressive youth.* Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, control, replacement.* New York: Guilford Press.

Parens, H. (1993). *Aggression in our children: Coping with it constructively.* Northvale, NJ: Aronson.

ANTISEPTIC BOUNCING

This technique allows a student to leave the classroom for a few minutes—perhaps to get a drink of water, use the bathroom, or run an errand—to regain control when his or her behavior begins to escalate. In antiseptic bouncing there is no intent to punish; the teacher allows the student to regain control by distancing himself or herself to save embarrassment and humiliation in front of classmates (Templeton, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Templeton, R. A. (1993). Managing disruptive behavior: Help for regular and SED teachers. In J. Marr, G. Sugai, & G. Tindal (Eds.). *The Oregon Conference monograph 1993* (pp. 60 - 65). Eugene: University of Oregon.

ART THERAPY

The use of art provides students with an alternative means of expressing their feelings. The student who may be unable to share his or her feelings in oral or written form may feel less threatened expressing feelings, problems, fears, despondency, and unhappiness through the medium of art (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993). "In the art therapy setting individuals work with art materials they can control. During the creative process they begin to understand and take command of their own lives" (Algozzine, 1992, p. 7:2). Art can allow individuals to express the same experience or feelings in many different ways. "Its purpose can be as varied as the need for self-expression of a particular student" (Weller & Buchanan, 1988, p. 68).

Art therapy should be nondirective in order to allow total self-expression (Weller & Buchanan, 1988). Teachers should encourage students to select their own subjects and art forms. Art produced by the student should be viewed as a "mode of self-expression and should be left uninhibited" (Weller & Buchanan, 1988, p. 68).

Art therapy can help students develop more positive self-concepts, reduce anxiety, transform negative behaviors into positive creative behavior, engage in self-discovery and self-understanding, develop social skills, and develop self-management skills (Algozzine, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Weller, C., & Buchanan, M. (1988). *Educators' desk reference for special learning problems*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING

Assertiveness training teaches young people how to communicate feelings honestly and openly and behave in ways to get their needs met without compromising anyone else's rights. Learning to be assertive is a skill that takes knowledge of basic rights and practice for proficiency (Hipp, 1985).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Hipp, E. (1985). *Fighting invisible tigers: A stress management guide for teens.* Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

BEHAVIOR CONTRACTS

Contracting is a method of formalizing contingency for reinforcement in a written agreement. The teacher and student set up a contract which outlines the goals the student must attain within a certain length of time. The goals may either be academic or behavioral. The contract, drawn up by teacher(s), student, and parents, may be worked on and reinforced at home and/or at school (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993). Samples of a variety of behavior contracts are pictured on pages 107 - 110 in Appendix A. Steps for implementing effective behavior contracts include:

- Step 1 Define the specific behavior for which the contract is being implemented;
- Step 2: Select contract reinforcers;

- Step 3: Define the contract criteria;
- Step 4: Consider adding a bonus reward and/or penalty cause for particularly unmotivated students;
- Step 5: Negotiate the contract terms with the student;
- Step 6: Put the terms of the contract in writing;
- Step 7: Set a date to review the contract; and
- Step 8: All participating individuals should sign the contract; the teacher should keep the original and make copies for all signers (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1994, pp. 67 - 69).

"Contracting to Enhance Motivation," a section of the *Technical Assistance Manuals* (Reavis, Kukic, Jenson, & Morgan, 1993), has been reprinted on pages 95-103 in Appendix A.

A specific type of behavior contract is the PERSONAL EDUCATION PLAN described on page 34.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and Instructional Managment*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). *Technical Assistance Manuals*. Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1994). *The tough kid tool box*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Rockwell, S. (1993) *Tough to reach: Tough to teach*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

BEHAVIOR SUPPORT TEAMS

Behavior Support Teams (BST) uses a team-based approach to staff development and effective behavior support. The BST consists of four conventional steps: a) request for assistance, b) problem analysis and formulation, c) intervention development, and d) intervention implementation and evaluation. "What makes the BST structure unique is the application of a comprehensive package of effective behavioral support technologies, for example, a) functional assessment and analysis, b) social skills and self-management interventions, c) direct instruction, d) positive (non-aversive intervention technologies, and e) individualized curriculum adaptation" (Sugai & Horner, 1994, pp. 115, 117). A description of the Behavior Support Team strategy is included in the article "Including Students with Severe Behavior Problems in General Education Settings: Assumptions, Challenges, and Solutions" reprinted on pages 113 - 124 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Sugai, G., & Horner, R. Including students with severe behavior problems in general education settings: Assumptions, challenges, and solutions. In J. Marr, G. Sugai, & G. Tindal (Eds.). *The Oregon Conference Monograph 1994* (pp. 109 - 120). Eugene, OR: University of Oregon.

BIBLIOTHERAPY

Bibliotherapy is "the use of reading material for therapeutic effect on the mental or physical state of the reader" (Algozzine, 1992, p. 7:7). Bibliotherapy allows students to interact with print and nonprint materials, either imaginative or informative, in order to help them solve problems and promote good mental health. "Although the term bibliotherapy implies treatment, it also is used for diagnostic and preventive purposes" (Algozzine, p. 7:7).

The Literature Project (Miller, 1993) is a literature-based reading program focused on the needs of adolescent females with behavioral/emotional disorders, female offenders, and adolescent females at risk. Using novels and short stories written by and about women, the project seeks to introduce young women to female characters who are self-reliant, confident, and able to accomplish goals despite difficult circumstances. Students participating in the project have demonstrated improved self-concepts and self-confidence.

Teachers should be aware of the cultural authenticity of literary resources they recommend to students to insure that non-majority cultures are represented accurately. "If literature is a mirror that reflects human life, then all children who read or are read to need to see themselves reflected as part of humanity. If they are not, or if their reflections are distorted and ridiculous, there is the danger that they will absorb negative messages about themselves and people like them" (Harris, 1992, p. 43).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Harris, V. (Ed.) (1992). *Teaching multicultural literature in grades K-8.* Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.

Miller, D. (1993, April). *Teaching adolescents with behavioral/emotional disorders, adolescent offenders, and adolescents at-risk: A literature-based approach.* Paper presented at the CEC Conference in San Antonio, TX. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 361 972)

CHAINING

Chaining is a procedure of reinforcing individual responses in a sequence in order to teach more complex behavioral skills. As each new behavioral link is added, the most recent link needs to be reinforced (AZ-TAS, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

AZ-TAS Themes & Issues: Incorporating the use of non-aversive behavior management. Part I. (1992). Phoenix: Arizona Department of Education.

CIRCLE OF FRIENDS

Students with challenging behaviors often find themselves isolated and alone. But like every other student, they need friends and need to feel a sense of belonging (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994). A process known as "Circles of Friends" can help students build relationships with their classmates. Students who volunteer to be a part of a particular student's "circle" offer support and friendship. The circle meets on a regular basis as a team; a teacher who coordinates the circle can help problem solve any issues that come before the group.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Forest, M., & Pearpoint, J. C. (1991). Common sense tools: MAPS and circles for inclusive education. *Journal of the National Center for Outcome Based Education,* 1(3), 27 - 37.

Forest, M., & Pearpoint, J. C. (1992, October). Putting all kids on the MAP. *Educational Leadership,* pp. 26 - 31.

Topper, K., Williams, W., Leo, K., Hamilton, R., & Fox, T. (1994). *A positive approach to understanding and addressing challenging behaviors.* Burlington: University Affiliated Program of Vermont, Center for Developmental Disabilities.

CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE

Curwin and Mendler (1988) have identified nine characteristics of a healthy classroom environment. These are:

1) Trust is established
2) The learner perceives the benefit of changing his behavior
3) The learner is aware of different options and is allowed to make a growth choice
4) The evalution of learning actively engages the learner
5) Learning facts and concepts are important, but incomplete goals for learners
6) Learning is conceived as meaningful
7) Learning is growth producing, actualizing, and therefore enjoyable
8) Learning is process and people-oriented rather than product or subject-oriented
9) Learning includes more than just the cognitive or affective domains (pp. 162 - 163)

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Curwin, R. L., & Mendler, A. N. (1988). *Discipline with dignity.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). *Classroom management strategies* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE PLANS

Classroom discipline plans should complement SCHOOL-WIDE DISCIPLINE PLANS (see *Prevention* document in this series). "Good classroom rules should be the backbone of any proactive strategy to reduce problem behaviors" (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993, p. 19). These authors recommend that teachers select and post core classroom rules before the first day of school. To reinforce those rules, teachers should start each day during the first two weeks of school randomly selecting students to:

- read a posted rule,
- discuss and/or role play why the rule is important,
- explain what will happen if the rule is followed, and
- explain what will happen if the rule is not followed (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993, p. 19).

Following this two-week introduction to rules, Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis (1993) recommend that teachers review the rules with students any time it seems necessary to do so. Characteristics of good proactive classroom rules include:

- Keep the number of rules to a **minimum**--about five rules for each classroom.
- Keep the wording of rules **simple**--pictures or icons depicting the rules help the understanding of younger students.
- Have the rules logically represent your **basic expectation** for a student's behavior in your classroom.
- Make your rules describe behavior that is **observable**. The behavior must be observable so that you can make an unequivocal decision as to whether or not the rule has been followed.
- Make your rules describe behavior that is **measurable**. That is, the behavior must be able to be counted or quantified in some way for monitoring purposes.
- Publicly post the rules in a prominent place in the classroom (e.g., in the front of the classroom, near the door). The lettering should be large and block-printed.

- Keep the wording **positive** if possible. Most rules can be stated in a positive manner; some rules cannot. However, the majority of classroom rules should be positive.
- Make your rules **specific**. The more ambiguous (i.e., open to several interpretations) the rules are, the more difficult they are to understand. Tough Kids can take advantage of nonspecific "loopholes" in poorly stated rules.
- Tie following the rules to **consequences**. You should spell out what happens positively if students follow the rules, and what they lose if they do not follow the rules. Frequently, teachers forget to state the positive consequences.
- Always include a **compliance rule**. You get the behavior that you post in rules. If you want to improve compliance in the classroom, include a rule such as "Do what your teachers asks immediately."

(Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, p. 20).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and Instructional Managment*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training*. New York: Guilford Press.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

CLASSROOM SCHEDULES

Scheduled academic learning time is "one of the basic proactive variables that is under teacher control." Unscheduled time, on the other hand, "is an open invitation to disruptive behavior" (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993, p. 22). These authors recommend that students be engaged in academic activities 70% of the school day to maximize learning and minimize behavioral problems. To increase learning time, Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis (1993) suggest that teachers begin on time, minimize "housekeeping" tasks, and minimize TRANSITION (see page 64) time between activities. The schedule of daily activities should be posted in a conspicuous place in the classroom so that it can be seen by all students. DIRECT INSTRUCTION (see page 17) is one method of teaching which maximizes academic learning time and provides a structured learning environment which works well for students with behavioral problems. PEER TUTORING (see page 33) and COOPERATIVE LEARNING STRATEGIES (see page 14) may also be used to maximize academic learning time.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

CLASSROOM SPACE

Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis (1993) recommend that teachers move "tough kids" (students with challenging behavioral problems) close to them in the classroom and that they do not allow these students to sit close to one another. "Having Tough Kids sit together is like disruptive behavior ability grouping" (p. 23). When two or more students with behavioral problems sit together, "they frequently reward each other for disruptive behavior" (p. 24). When these students are placed close to the teacher, they can be watched more carefully and can be more readily rewarded for positive behaviors or asked to help with classroom tasks.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

COMMUNICATION

The way in which a teacher communicates with students can help to either avoid or provoke conflict. Three forms of communication that can prevent or diffuse conflict are the use of I-message, Interpretive Feedback and Quiet Messages (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994). These are described on pages 127 - 128 of Appendix A.

A profile of the Effective Interaction Patterns program, a Pennsylvania-based model which seeks to improve communication skills of teachers for more effective classroom management, has been reprinted on pages 131 - 132 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Topper, K., Williams, W., Leo, K., Hamilton, R., & Fox, T. (1994). *A positive approach to understanding and addressing challenging behaviors.* Burlington: University Affiliated Program of Vermont, Center for Developmental Disabilities.

CONFERENCE CALLS

Conference calls are telephone calls involving a combination of teachers, administrators, students, and/or families working together as a team to solve problems. Initiated by the teacher, the conversation invites the participation of everyone (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12.* Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

COOPERATIVE LEARNING STRATEGIES

In a cooperative classroom students work together in small groups, drawing upon each other's strengths and accommodating individual differences as students assist one another in group projects and individual work assignments. In a cooperative classroom setting, "each person is responsible for his own learning and for assisting others" (Hilke, 1990, p. 8). The group draws upon the strengths of each person, and peers offer each other feedback, support, and encouragement for learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). Cooperative learning encourages supportive relationships, good communication skills, and higher-level thinking abilities.

Cooperative learning strategies may be especially beneficial for students who are at risk for or who have emotional/behavioral disabilities because a) they have been shown to increase achievement, especially among low-achieving students; b) they have been shown to be helpful in mainstreaming students with emotional/behavioral problems; c) they promote positive social relations and development; and d) they help increase "students' affection for themselves, each other, class, school, and learning" (Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis, 1993, p. 94).

Cooperative learning involves building a classroom atmosphere based on cooperation instead of competition. Cooperative learning strategies used in these classrooms include using different cooperative learning models for group interaction and playing cooperative games that encourage students to work together instead of compete against one another. A more detail explanation of COOPERATIVE CLASSROOMS appears in the *Prevention* document in this series.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Hilke, E. V. (1990). *Cooperative learning.* Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1987). *Learning together and alone: Cooperation, competition, and individualistic learning.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Putnam, J. W. (1993). *Cooperative learning and strategies for inclusion.* Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Slavin, R. E. (1990). *Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

COUNSELING

Individual and group counseling sessions can help students learn to express their feelings openly and honestly with one another and share ways to cope with similar problems and experiences. Various counseling strategies can be used to resolve emotional and behavioral problems as well as encourage behavioral change (Evans, Evans, & Schmid, 1989). Counseling sessions may be facilitated by a psychologist, counselor, social worker, or teacher trained in counseling techniques.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and Instructional Management.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

CURRICULUM MODIFICATIONS

Curriculum modifications can be effective in increasing the academic success of students while decreasing problematic behaviors. A number of modification strategies to the traditional curriculum can be employed according to the individual needs of each student. Some possibilities include adaptation of content, provisions for immediate corrective feedback, opportunities for visual reinforcement through self-graphing, modification of workbook materials, and various reinforcements (Edwards, 1980).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Chalmers, L. (1992). *Modifying curriculum for the special needs student in the regular classroom.* Moorhead, MN: Practical Press.

Edwards, L. L. (1980). Curriculum modifications as a strategy for helping regular classroom behavior-disordered students. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 12*(8), 1 - 11.

DIFFERENTIAL REINFORCEMENT OF INCOMPATIBLE BEHAVIORS

This technique reinforces an appropriate behavior that is physically and functionally incompatible with the targeted inappropriate behavior. Positive reinforcement of the appropriate behavior increases its likelihood to replace the inappropriate behavior (AZ-TAS, 1992). Differential reinforcement works best for behaviors that require the teacher's attention and thus make ignoring effective. One way to use differential reinforcement is to ignore the misbehavior of the student, wait, and then praise appropriate behavior. Another approach is to ignore the student who is misbehaving while praising a student seated nearby who is behaving appropriately (Rhode, Reavis, & Jenson, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

DIFFERENTIAL REINFORCEMENT OF OTHER BEHAVIOR

This technique rewards any behavior except the identified problem behavior. Theoretically, positive reinforcement should increase acceptable behaviors while problematic behaviors decrease for lack of reinforcement. This technique must be applied for an extended period of time to be effective (AZ-TAS, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

AZ-TAS Themes & Issues: Incorporating the use of non-aversive behavior management. Part I. (1992). Phoenix: Arizona Department of Education.

DIRECT INSTRUCTION

Direct instruction is an instructional approach that emphasizes the use of group instruction and face-to-face instruction by teachers or aides who use carefully sequenced lessons. Although there is no single type of direct instruction, many direct instruction programs have the following characteristics:

- Teacher presentations are scripted and preplanned;
- Presentations are fast paced;
- Small groups are utilized to maximize student response opportunities and teacher monitoring;

- Oral group responding is incorporated to monitor the ongoing learning of all students;
- Skills are taught to mastery;
- Individual mastery tests are administered to confirm mastery;
- Student motivation is maintained by teacher praise and encouragement and other reinforcement; and
- When students make errors, correction is immediate, using specific correction procedures (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993, p. 91).

Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis (1993) recommend several direct instruction programs in math, reading, spelling and writing. All of these products are available from Science Research Associates (SRA), School Group, 155 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, IL 60606. Telephone: (312) 984-7000 Fax: (312) 984-7935

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

DISCIPLINE WITH DIGNITY

Discipline with Dignity is a comprehensive, practical approach to classroom management that encourages students to take responsibility for their own behavior. Developed by Allen Mendler (1992) and Richard Curwin, the program is based on the concepts of mutual respect, cooperation, and shared-decision making. It is a flexible program that offers essential skills and strategies for dealing with angry, disruptive behavior. The program includes three, 15-20 minute VHS tapes, filmed in K-12, multicultural settings. The topics demonstrate practical techniques for effectively dealing with diverse discipline situations. These tapes may be used in conjunction with inservice training, workshops, and presentations offered by the National Educational Service, 1610 W. 3rd Street, P. O. Box 8, Bloomington, IN 47402. Telephone: (800) 733-6786 or (812) 336-7700 Fax: (812) 336-7790

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Mendler, A. N. (1992). *What do I do when? . . . How to achieve discipline with dignity in the classroom.* Bloomington: National Education Service.

EARLY CHILDHOOD INTERVENTIONS

Many of the interventions described in this document can be used with young children or can be adapted for use with young children. Additionally, resources such as the *Early Childhood Behavior Intervention Manual* (McCarney, 1991) describe strategies which have proven to be effective with young children in the areas of academic progress, social relationships, and personal adjustments.

Practical Solutions to Practically Every Problem: The Early Childhood Teacher's Manual (Saifer, 1990) includes sections on "Children Who Are Challenging" and "Children with Difficult Behaviors" with strategies for working with children who display aggressive and other inappropriate. behaviors.

Additional interventions for young children are discussed in "Helping Children with Challenging Behaviors" (Saifer, 1994) and "Aggression and Cooperation: Helping Young Children Develop Constructive Strategies" (Jewett, 1993) reprinted on pages 135 & 139 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

McCarney, S. B. (1991). *Early childhood behavior intervention manual.* Columbia, MO: Hawthorne Educational Services.

Saifer, S. (1990). *Practical solutions to practically every problem: The early childhood teacher's manual.* St. Paul: Redleaf Press.

Watkins, K. P., & Durant, L. (1992). *Complete early childhood behavior management guide.* Port Chester, NY: National Professional Resources.

ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING

Environmental engineering involves the arrangement or manipulation of the physical environment of the classroom or stimuli in the classroom in order to create optimum conditions for learning to take place. An example would be to arrange the classroom so that there are separate areas for quiet reading, seat work, and small group work. Another example of environmental engineering would be to avoid seating students in front of the classroom door to decrease distractions in the hallway.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Utah State Board of Education (1992). *Selection of least restrictive behavioral interventions for use with students with disabilities.* Salt Lake City: Author.

FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS

Functional analysis is a process of determining the purpose of students' behaviors in order to plan strategies to prevent inappropriate behaviors. The rationale behind the analysis is that if the function of the behavior can be identified, the student can be taught a new way to achieve the same result (Utah, 1992). A functional analysis includes the following steps:

- Data collection
- Identify behavior
- Identify antecedents
- Identify consequences
- Communication ability and intent

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Utah State Board of Education (1992). *Selection of least restrictive behavioral interventions for use with students with disabilities.* Salt Lake City: Author.

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G.O.T. IT! PROBLEM SOLVING

The G. O. T. (Getting On Top) is a program designed to teach students seven steps of problem solving: 1) Stay calm 2) How do I feel? 3) What happened? 4) What are my choices? 5) What are the results? 6) What did I choose? and 7) I got on top! (Hartwig, 1993). A description of the program has been reprinted on page 143 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Hartwig, L. (1993, Fall). *G.O.T. IT! Problem Solving Program. The Best Times,* p. 2.

HOME NOTES

Home notes are an effective but underutilized technique for improving student motivation and classroom behavior. Home notes are an assessment of academic and/or behavioral progress that is sent home periodically for parents to review and sign and return to school. Home Note programs frequently request that parents apply some type of rewards for a positive report and mild reductive consequences for a poor report. The Home Note program is subject to problems because it is dependent upon the student for delivery, but most of these problems can be solved if the program is well designed and the parents are cooperative (Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis, 1993, p. 106). Sample daily and weekly home note forms have been reprinted on pages 151 & 155 in Appendix A.

"Homenotes to Improve Motivation," a section of the *Technical Assistance Manuals* (Reavis, Kukic, Jenson, & Morgan, 1993), has been reprinted on pages 159 - 169 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (Eds.) (1993). *Technical Assistance Manuals.* Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

INSTRUCTIONAL PRINCIPLES TO REMEDIATE BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

An instructional approach that is commonly used to teach academic content and skills can be applied systematically to the teaching of appropriate behaviors as well. Instead of the traditional reactive approach to displays of inappropriate behavior which sets up a hierarchy of negative consequences, the teacher takes a proactive approach by identifying the problem, teaching a replacement strategy, and providing the student with opportunities for practice and review with feedback (Colvin & Sugai, 1988). This strategy is explained in fuller detail in the article "Proactive Strategies for Managing Social Behavior Problems: An Instructional Approach" (Colvin & Sugai, 1988) reprinted on pages 177-184 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Colvin, G., & Sugai, G. (1988). Proactive strategies for managing social behavior problems: An instructional approach. *Education and Treatment of Children, 11* (4), 341 - 348.

JOURNAL WRITING

Journal writing allows students the opportunity to express their feelings in writing which they might not feel comfortable expressing otherwise. This may be a voluntary or assigned activity.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

LEVEL SYSTEM

A level management system is a motivational plan for behavioral improvement based upon a graduated series of steps or levels with increasing student responsibility and privileges at each step (Resiberg, Brodigan, & Williams, 1991). Each level includes expectations, consequences and privileges, and transition rules that allow students to progress through the system. Students move up or down the system, based on teacher observations of their behavior. Level systems are usually used in self-contained classrooms. As students progress through each level, they "earn" the priviledge to gradually spend more of the school day in a regular classroom setting.

The design of a level management system includes the following steps:

1) Define steps clearly
2) Define observable, specific desired behaviors
3) Clearly define undesirable behaviors
4) Clearly define reinforcers
5) Determine measurable criteria
6) Measure and record student performance
7) Include complementary systems
8) Communicate frequently (Resiberg, Brodigan, & Williams, 1991; Morgan & Jenson, 1988; Sugai & Colvin, 1989)

A profile of a middle school level system is described below. Examples of a level system contract and tracking chart are reproduced on pages 187 & 191 of Appendix A.

Profile of a Middle School Level System

A level system is used in the Extended Resource room at Cascade Middle School in Eugene, OR. Students assigned to the Extended Resource Room progress through the four-level system to become "self-managers" by meeting their IEP goals at the percentage stated for each level. Each of the four levels carries a distinctive set of responsibilities, privileges, and restrictions. The Resource Room offers a structured, supportive environment with a low teacher-to-student ratio. As students progress from level one to four, they gradually earn the right to be included in more regular education activities. Students attending regular education classes carry checklists with them which teachers use to rate their daily performance. Students in Level III begin the transition from the Extended Resource Room into full-time participation in regular classrooms and at Level IV, they become self-managers in the regular education environment. Returning to regular education classrooms is often difficult for students because of drastic changes in class size, reinforcement, and attention, but being back in the regular classroom represents a reward in itself students will work for until they become self-managing.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Bauer, A. M., & Shea, T. M. (1988). Structuring classrooms through level systems. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 3,* 1 - 12.

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Klotz, M. E. B. (1987). Development of a behavior management level system: A comprehensive school-wide behavior management program for emotionally disturbed adolescents. *The Pointer, 31* (2), 5 - 11.

Morgan, D. P., & Jenson, W. R. (1988). *Teaching behaviorally disordered students.* Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Reisberg, L., Brodigan, D., & Williams, G. J. (1991). Classroom management: Implementing a system for students with BD. *Intervention in School and Clinic, 27* (1), pp. 31 - 38.

Sugai, G., & Colvin, G. (1989). *Development and implementation of leveled behavior management systems.* Eugene, OR: Behavior Associates.

LIFE SPACE INTERVENTION

Life Space Intervention (LSI) is a therapeutic, verbal strategy for intervention with students in crisis which takes place at the time the crisis occurs. LSI can be used with children and youth of any age in stressful situations, and with students who are unable to control or manage their own behavior appropriately. Originally designed during the 1950s for practitioners working with children and youth with extreme social, emotional, or behavioral problems in clinical settings, LSI has continued value and broader application possibilities as violent behaviors become more commonplace in schools today.

LSI is currently used in various settings "wherever the paramount concern is to teach troubled children and youth better ways to cope with the social, emotional, and behavioral crises in life" (Wood & Long, 1991, p. 7). While providing emotional "first aid" at the time of crisis, LSI provides a process for understanding behavior and feelings and the opportunity to teach children and youth better ways to cope with stress, to change their behavior, and to resolve conflict (Wood & Long, 1991, p. 7). During life space interviews, an effort is made to understand how the child or youth perceives the problem. The focus is on discussion and prevention of future problems rather than determining punishment (Epanchin, 1991).

The LSI process views a crisis as a time for learning. Life space interventions combine therapeutic tools with educational tools so that adults can help children and youth learn about themselves and their feelings. LSI emphasizes the dynamic nature of the interactions between an adult and student at the time of crisis. If skillfully done, the communication which takes place between these individuals can be therapeutic and have long-lasting benefits for the student. When an effective Life Space Intervention occurs, "a crisis situation that could otherwise end up as a destructive and deprecating experience for the student instead becomes an instructional and insightful experience" (Wood & Long, 1991, p. xiii). An adult's skills in using verbal strategies directly affect both the immediate solving of the crisis and the long-term effects as well; skilled verbal strategies are essential for adults who are trained to use LSI.

Life Space Intervention uses students' reactions to stressful incidents to a) change behavior, b) enhance self-esteem, c) reduce anxiety, and d) expand understanding and insight into their own and others' behavior and feelings (Wood & Long, 1991).

The LSI process involves six steps outlined on pages 26 - 27. Although each step is distinct in purpose and content, "when linked together, these steps build a communication bridge to a fuller understanding of the student's distress, the resulting crisis, and alternative solutions that require behaviors in keeping with the student's ability to cope successfully" (Wood & Long, 1991, p. 8 - 10). The authors explain the process:

As LSI begins, there is an exploration of the student's understanding of the event. LSI then expands to feelings that evoked the behaviors and the reactions of others to those behaviors. As the incident is clarified and expanded, the central issue is formed. During the process, the focus often shifts from the incident to a deeper, more serious, underlying concern not easily or directly expressed by the student. at this point, the process takes a turn toward problem solving and away from problem exploration. Together, adult and student explore ways to ameliorate both the immediate incident and associated long-term problems. Behavioral alternatives are selected to resolve the present crisis and to achieve better outcomes when stress occurs again in the future.

Step 1: Focus on the Incident

PURPOSE:	To convey support and understanding of the student's stress and to start the student talking about the incident.
CONTENT:	The incident itself-the event that actually brought about the need for LSI is identified.

Step 2: Crisis Need to Talk

PURPOSE:	To talk in sufficient detail to clarify and expand understanding about the reality components of the incident, and to decrease student's emotional intensity while increasing reliance on rational words and ideas.
CONTENT:	A sequence of events, a time line, is established to obtain details of the student's view of the incident, the associated stress, and personal involvement.

Step 3: Find the Central Issue and Select a Therapeutic Goal

PURPOSE:	To explore the student's perception of the incident and associated feelings and anxieties until you have sufficient understanding to concisely state the central issue and decide what the therapeutic goal should be.
CONTENT:	Determine the extent to which the student's behavior is driven by feelings and anxiety, the depth and spread of this conflict, the amount of rational control the student can exercise over these emotions, and what the long-term and short-term outcomes should be for the student as a result of this specific LSI.

Step 4: Choose a Solution Based on Values

PURPOSE: To select a solution that the student values as beneficial and claims with a sense of genuine ownership. If a student is not able to do this, the adult chooses a solution that establishes group values and reality consequences that will work in the student's behalf.

CONTENT: The solution is selected from several alternatives, representing the student's own changing, insights and beliefs about what constitutes a satisfactory solution, considering subsequent consequences. When a student denies responsibility or cannot choose, the adult structures the solution for the student around group values and social norms that are within the student's capacity to use successfully.

Step 5: Plan for Success

PURPOSE: To rehearse what will happen and anticipate reactions and feelings (of self and others) when the chosen solution is actually put into action.

CONTENT: Selected behaviors are specifically practiced as rehearsal for reacting and problem solving successfully when the student faces the consequences of the original incident and when a similar problem may occur in the future.

Step 6: Ready to Resume Activity

PURPOSE: To plan for the student's transition back into the group's ongoing activity, and to close down private topics or feelings that may have surfaced during the talk.

CONTENT: The adult shifts the focus to help the student anticipate how to manage reentry into the peer group. If there is to be a short-term consequence to the original incident, the student is prepared as that goes into action. This final step is essential also for closing down emotions and reducing the intensity of the relationship that may have occurred during the LSI between student and adult.

The Life Space Intervention procedure used at Rose Hill Elementary School in Commerce City, CO has been reprinted on pages 195 -196 in Appendix A.

"Life Space Interviewing" by Nicholas Long has been reprinted on pages 199 - 204 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Long, N. (1992). Life space interviewing. In *Students at risk.* Storm Lake, IA: Leadership Institute in Administration of Special Education Programs.

Weller, C., & Buchanan, M. (1988) *Educators' desk reference for special learning problems.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Wood, M. M., & Long, N. J. (1991). *Life space intervention: Talking with children and youth in crisis.* Austin: PRO-ED.

MANAGING ANTECEDENTS TO ESCALATING BEHAVIORS

Many inappropriate behaviors can be redirected during their beginning stages so that behaviors do not escalate further out of control (Wright, Gurman, & the California Association of School Psychologists, 1994). A number of strategies can be used to de-escalate or redirect inappropriate behaviors so that more intensive interventions are unnecessary. Some of these have been reprinted on pages 207-209 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Wright, D. B., Gurman, H. B., & the California Association of School Psychologists/Diagnostic Center Positive Intervention Task Force. (1994). *Positive intervention for serious behavior problems.* Sacramento: Resources in Special Education.

MENTORING

Mentoring programs vary in approach but all share common characteristics--pairing of a "child at risk" with one or more role models who are supportive and caring. Most students need a combination of social-emotional support and academic tutoring to encourage hope (Mendler, 1992, p. 86). Some mentor programs use school staff members while others use community volunteers; sometimes older students mentor younger, college students mentor for credit, and senior citizens act as mentors. Community-based partnerships of parents, businesses, churches, and social agencies can work collaboratively with schools to define needs of kids and set up mentoring programs to address those needs.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Mendler, A. N. (1992). *What do I do when? . . . How to achieve discipline with dignity in the classroom.* Bloomington: National Education Service.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). *Mentoring.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

MODELING

Modeling involves students in learning through observation and imitation. Students observe the behavior modeled (positive or negative) and then copy the behavior. The model may be live, videotaped, or on television. Modeling is frequently used to teach students new behaviors, to increase the frequency of learned behaviors, and to teach students to inhibit negative behaviors (Algozzine, 1992). Because students "do as we do" rather than "do as we say," it is important for teachers to provide appropriate models for their students. Teachers should exemplify the best model they expect from their students (McDaniel, 1987).

Goldstein, Harootunian, & Conoley (1994) offer these modeling guidelines:

- Use at least two examples of different situations for each demonstration of a skill. If a given skill is taught in more than one group meeting, develop two more new modeling displays.
- Select situations that are relevant to the trainees' real life circumstances.
- The individual modeling the skill should be portrayed as a person reasonably similar in age, socioeconomic background, verbal ability, and other salient characteristics to the students in the class.
- Modeling displays should depict only one skill at a time.

- All modeling displays should depict all the behavioral steps of the skill being modeled in the correct sequence.

- All displays should depict positive outcomes and reinforcement of the model. (p. 44)

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training*. New York: Guilford Press.

McDaniel, T. R. (1987). *Improving student behavior: Essays on classroom management and motivation*. New York: University Press of America.

MUSIC THERAPY

Music therapy is the "controlled use of music to treat, rehabilitate, educate, and train children and adults who suffer from physical, mental, and emotional disorders. The therapeutic value of music is not related to the type of music used, nor the way in which the music is presented. It is related to the effect of sound on an individual and the feelings and emotional responses that are provoked by that sound" (Weller & Buchanan, 1988, p. 211). Music used in therapy need not meet high standards of perfection. It need only "fulfill the needs of individuals in expressing and understanding their own feelings" (Weller & Buchanan, p. 211).

Music therapy is used "to promote expression, awareness, and acceptance of self" (Algozzine, 1992, p. 7:19). Music therapy may be used to develop self-concept, encourage self-expression, reduce anxiety, stimulate communication, develop social skills, and improve group awareness and appreciation of others.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Weller, C., & Buchanan, M. (1988) *Educators' desk reference for special learning problems*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

NON-VERBAL CUEING

This technique is used to help the student move toward improved internal control. The teacher uses a hand gesture, facial gesture, or other non-verbal signal to the student that he or she needs to correct a behavior. The cue is determined by the teacher and student before it is used (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993). Non-verbal techniques are most effective when used at the beginning stages of misbehavior and with students with whom a teacher has developed a relationship (Templeton, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). *Signal interference cueing*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

NON-VIOLENT PHYSICAL CRISIS INTERVENTION

"Non-violent physical crisis intervention is intended to prevent a student from harming himself or others. It is only used in emergency situations, when other forms of intervention have not been successful. The technique involves restraining a student until it is determined that he has become calm enough to release without the danger of further physical aggression (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993, pp. 129 - 130).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

1-MINUTE SKILL BUILDER

The 1-Minute Skill Builder is an alternative for assisting teachers to reduce mild behavior and social skill problems through a positive instructional focus (Fister, 1994). The process involves a four-step correction procedure designed to take approximately one minute and immediately reduce or correct a student's misbehavior. A description of the 1-Minute Skill Builder has been reprinted on pages 213 - 214 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Fister, S. (1994, Winter). The 1-Minute Skill Builder. *The Best Times*, pp. 3, 6.

OVERCORRECTION

An alternative to traditional punishment procedures, overcorrection engages the student in an extended positive practice of the correct behavior or actions which correct the results of the inappropriate behavior (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders*. San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training*. New York: Guilford Press.

PEER BUDDY SYSTEM

Peer buddies can serve as friends, special guides, or peer counselors to students who are experiencing behavioral problems. Sometimes an older student who is experiencing problems can find satisfaction in being designated as a buddy to a younger student. Yet another strategy is to pair two students who are experiencing similar problems to help each other (Program Standards, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Program standards and guidelines for special education and special services in Hawaii. (1993). Honolulu: Office of Instructional Services/Community and Special Education Branch. Department of Education.

PEER TUTORING

Academic gains, improvement in classroom behavior, and cooperative peer relations are common positive outcomes of peer tutoring programs (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993). Peer tutoring techniques are most effective when they supplement teacher instruction rather than take its place. Peer tutoring can "provide a means for structured practice or review, for students to serve as monitors for other students, or to reinforce teacher directed instruction" (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1994, p. 189). Students should be carefully taught specific tutoring procedures, and their tutoring efforts should be carefully monitored. Rotation of peer tutors enables students to socially interact with different classmates.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

PERSONAL EDUCATION PLAN

The Personal Education Plan (PEP) is a specialized form of BEHAVIOR CONTRACT (see page 6). The PEP is a "living process" that can be reviewed and revised as needed (Jones, 1994). The purpose of the Personal Education Plan is to teach the student the skills necessary for responsible behavior, and students are included in the development of the plan. Key components of the Personal Education Plan include:

- Clear expectations for positive student behavior are specified in the plan;
- The plan includes an instructional component (e. g. social skills training) in which the student learns to make alternative and more responsible choices;
- Positive and negative consequences are clearly delineated; and
- A person is identified to coordinate, review and revise the plan, as needed.

Guidelines explaining the Personal Education Plan process and PEP forms have been reprinted on pages 217 - 234 of Appendix A.

A Personal Education Plan is also part of the *Resource Guide for Oregon Educators on Developing Student Responsibility* (1989) reprinted on pages 381 - 402 of Appendix B.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

A resource guide for Oregon educators on developing student responsibility. (1989). Salem: Oregon Department of Education.

PLANNED IGNORING

In differential attention, or planned ignoring, a teacher pays attention to appropriate behavior and ignores inappropriate behavior. Ignoring is difficult because it requires teachers to do nothing while an irritating behavior is occurring, and because misbehavior usually gets worse before it gets better (Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis, 1993). To ignore, the teacher breaks eye contact with the student, walks away, or engages in another behavior in an effort not to reinforce negative behaviors intended to attract attention. Planned ignoring can be effective because "much of a student's behavior carries its own limited power and will soon exhaust itself if it is not given attention" (Templeton, 1993, p. 62).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Templeton, R. A. (1993). Managing disruptive behavior: Help for regular and SED teachers. In J. Marr, G. Sugai, & G. Tindal (Eds.). *The Oregon Conference monograph 1993* (pp. 60 - 65). Eugene: University of Oregon.

PLAY THERAPY

Play therapy refers to a "set of techniques that provides an atmosphere in which children can freely express feelings, concerns, and conflicts through play. The techniques offer materials that prompt freedom of expression, self-analysis, coping tactics, and renewed interest in the relationship between the children and the world around them" (Algozzine, 1992, p. 7:29). Although play therapy began in a counseling setting, it has been modified for use in a variety of environments. For a play therapy program to be successful, three ingredients are necessary: 1) "a willing and sensitive teacher or counselor, 2) a permissive play environment, and 3) appropriate toys or materials" (Algozzine, p. 7:29). During play therapy, the teacher of counselor guides young students in the play situation, helping them to discover and express feelings, gain confidence, approach and attempt new play experiences, and expand their capabilities. The ultimate goal of play therapy is for young students to develop a sense of mastery and achievement through exploration of his environment. Play therapy may help young students improve their self-concepts, change their behavior, improve their ability to make choices, reduce anxiety, and develop better social skills, increase empathy toward other children.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

POINT SYSTEMS

A point system is a particular type of positive reinforcement in which teachers award points to students while praising them for exhibiting appropriate behaviors. Points can later be exchanged for specified rewards (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavin, 1993). Sample point cards and charts have been reproduced on pages 237 & 241 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1994). *The tough kid tool box*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

POSITIVE PRACTICE

Positive practice involves practicing an appropriate behavior as a consequence for an inappropriate behavior. With a nonpunitive, educational intent, the teacher corrects the inappropriate behavior, explains an appropriate alternative to the student, allows the student to practice the appropriate behavior, and praises the student for demonstrating the correct behavior (Kerr & Nelson, 1989).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Kerr, M. M., & Nelson, C. M. (1989). *Strategies for managing behavior problems in the classroom*. Columbus: Merrill Publishing Company.

POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT

Careful selection and use of positive reinforcement can help teachers increase appropriate behaviors. These reinforcements may be "natural" reinforcements that are readily available in the classroom or school (e. g., an extra recess, the privilege of being first in line, etc.), edible reinforcements (e.g., candy ice cream, pizza, french fries, etc.), material reinforcements (stickers, positive note home, time to engage in a fun activity), and social reinforcements (e.g., a smile, compliment, positive comments). What is reinforcing for one student may not be reinforcing for another so teachers must be creative in their search for effective reinforcers and may let students help determine reinforcers for appropriate behavior. Finding rewards for some students with behavioral problems may "require a great deal of ingenuity on the part of teachers. However, the effort will pay enormous dividends" (Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis, 1993, p. 50).

The Golden Rule for Selecting Reinforcers

Reinforcements "should not cost a lot of money, should not take a lot of staff time, and should be natural whenever possible" (Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis, 1993, p. 40)

Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis (1993) list several "cautions" in the selection and use of positive reinforcement, including:

- Select reinforcement which is age appropriate;
- Use "natural" reinforcement whenever it is effective;
- Use reinforcement appropriate to the student's level of functioning;
- Make certain you have parental and administrative support for the reinforcement you plan to use;
- Avoid partial praise statements;
- Always make the most of opportunities to reinforce appropriate behavior;
- Be genuinely polite and courteous and demonstrate concern and interest toward students with emotional/behavioral problems; learn to stay calm;
- Do not confuse positive reinforcement or privileges with a student's basic rights (p. 33).

The Reinforcement Continuum diagram on page 259 in Appendix A highlights various kinds of reinforcements with examples of each. Readers are cautioned that "although the types of reinforcers are presented in hierarchical order, from bottom to top, frequently more than one reinforcer is present in any given situation, and the precise hierarchy of intrinsic and extrinsic characteristic of a reinforcer is open to interpretation" (Wright, 1994, p. 82).

Specific positive reinforcements discussed in other sections of this document include *POINT SYSTEMS* (see page 36) and *RAFFLE TICKETS* (see page 42).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders*. San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and instructional management*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training*. New York: Guilford Press.

McDaniel, T. R. (1987). *Improving student behavior: Essays on classroom management and motivation*. New York: University Press of America.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). Structured reinforcement systems Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

PRECISION REQUESTS

Precision requests are used by teachers to increase student compliance and reduce noncompliance. The precision request sequence involves eight steps (Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis, 1993, p. 62):

Step 1: The teacher explains the precision request and its consequences to the entire class.

Step 2: The teacher states a nonquestioning "Please" request (such as "Please begin your work") while standing close and making eye contact.

Step 3: The teachers waits 5 - 10 seconds after making the request and does not interact with the student during this time.

Step 4: If the student starts to comply, he is reinforced verbally.

Step 5: If the student does not comply within 5 - 10 seconds, a second request is given coupled with the word "need" (I **need** you to begin your work).

Step 6: If the student starts to comply, he is reinforced verbally.

Step 7: If the student still does not comply within 5 - 10 seconds, the teacher implements a preplanned consequence.

Step 8: After the reducive consequence, the teacher again repeats the request using the signal word "need." If the student complies, he is reinforced. If not, the next preplanned consequence is used.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

PREREFERRAL INTERVENTION

Prereferral intervention allows teachers and other staff members to plan collaboratively and evaluate effective interventions for students with emotional/behavioral problems. The process is an alternative prior to, or in place of, initiating a referral for special education services (Algozzine, 1992).

Referrals are made by any teachers. Members of the prereferral team may be any staff members who have the expertise needed to solve the problem. After the problems are identified and prioritized, alternatives are explored. The team focuses on information, options, and choices and realizes that interventions are well-planned attempts at finding workable solutions and not final decisions. The emphasis is on providing assistance needed by students so they can remain in regular education classes whenever possible.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Graden, J. L., Casey, A., & Bonstrom, O. (1985). Implementing a prereferral intervention system: Part I. The model. *Exceptional Children, 51,* 377- 384.

Graden, J. L., Casey, A., & Bonstrom, O. (1985). Implementing a prereferral intervention system: Part II. The data. *Exceptional Children, 51*, 487-496.

PUBLIC POSTING

Public posting is a strategy which can be effective to decrease disruptive behaviors and improve academic motivation. Behavior and/or academic progress scores are posted in a conspicuous place (bulletin board, blackboard, poster, or display case) that is visible from students' desks. The more recent the information and the more immediately it is posted, the most effective this technique will be (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993). Posting can be used to measure individual progress as well as team performance for students working in groups.

"Advertising for Success: Improving Motivation," a section of the *Technical Assistance Manuals* (Reavis, Kukic, Jenson, & Morgan, 1993) has been reprinted on pages 245 -255 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). *Technical Assistance Manuals*. Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

QUIET PLACES

"Corners, small rooms, or retreats are constructed where students can go to be by themselves without distraction or to 'cool off.' Tension is relieved, the student has a chance to calm down before talking about the problems and escalation of conflict is prevented" (Program Standards, 1993, p. 2).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Program standards and guidelines for special education and special services in Hawaii. (1993). Honolulu: Office of Instructional Services/Community and Special Education Branch. Department of Education.

RAFFLE TICKETS

Raffle tickets are a special kind of positive reinforcement teachers can use to reinforce appropriate behaviors on a daily basis. Teachers give students tickets who are demonstrating appropriate behaviors. Students write their names on earned tickets and drop them in a designated container. Raffle drawings take place at scheduled or at random times, often daily or weekly. Those who have earned tickets win a chance at a prize or their choice of a prize or privilege (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993). Samples of raffle tickets have been reprinted on page 263 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

REALITY THERAPY

Reality therapy emphasizes behavior in the real world and students' responsibility for their behavior. Reality therapy attempts to lead individuals toward reality, fulfillment, love, and worthiness through acceptance of responsibility for their actions (Weller & Buchanan, 1988). Although reality therapy was originally designed for therapeutic use, it has implications for classroom use as well. Glasser (1965) suggested that teachers "present themselves as loving and lovable persons, confront students with the reality of behaviors, accept student as worthy individuals, reject irresponsible behaviors, and provide insights and learning experiences that reflect on the effect of behaviors on others" (Weller & Buchanan, p. 263). Through teacher-directed questioning, students learn how to describe and evaluate their behavior and how to develop plans to change their behavior to be more responsible and socially acceptable. As students assume responsibility for their actions, they also accept the responsibility to change their behavior. In this way, students learn a sense of self-worth and involvement in self-direction (Glasser, 1965; Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993; Algozzine, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and instructional management.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Glasser, W. (1965). *Reality therapy: A new approach to psychiatry.* New York: Harper and Row.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training.* New York: Guilford Press.

Tauber, R. T. (1990). *Classroom management from A to Z.* Fort Worth, TX: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Weller, C., & Buchanan, M. (1988). *Educator's desk reference for special learning problems.* Newton, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

REDIRECTION

Redirection involves directing a student away from a potentially stressful or volatile situation toward an activity less likely to provoke inappropriate behaviors (AZ-TAS, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

AZ-TAS Themes & Issues: Incorporating the use of non-aversive behavior management. Part I. (1992). Phoenix: Arizona Department of Education.

RELAXATION TRAINING

Relaxation allows students' minds to clear and be open to new ideas. Relaxation training heightens students' awareness of their bodies and their ability to control their bodies. Relaxation training offers students a positive way to respond and control feelings of anger, anxiety, and fear. Basic techniques of relaxation include deep breathing and progressive muscle relaxation, visual imagery, counting to ten, meditation, and yoga (Lupin, 1977; Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993). Relaxation typically includes a) orderly tensing and relaxing of muscles, b) verbal instruction in a calm, soothing voice by a person experienced in relaxation training, and c) training in a quiet environment away from other people and distractions (AZ-TAS, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

AZ-TAS Themes & Issues: Incorporating the use of non-aversive behavior management. Part I. (1992). Phoenix: Arizona Department of Education.

RESPONSE COST

Response cost is the removal of previously acquired reinforcements when a student demonstrates inappropriate behaviors. Response-cost procedures have proven to be particularly effective when combined with positive reinforcement for desirable behaviors.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training.* New York: Guilford Press.

SCHEDULE CHANGES

Charting the time of day when most behavioral problems occur can help teachers identify "problem times." Variations in scheduling, such as rotation of the last period of the school day, may reduce behavioral problems (Program Standards, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Rockwell, S. (1993) *Tough to reach: Tough to teach*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

SELF-CONTROL CURRICULUM

A self-control curriculum, designed by the Preventive Discipline Project--a field-based researched project at Westfield State College--can be used as a guide to teach specific self-control objectives for individual students (Henley, 1994). The curriculum is divided into five broad skill areas: controlling impulses, assessing social reality, managing group situations, coping with stress, and solving social problems. Each skill area includes four specific self-control skills. "A Self-Control Curriculum for Troubled Youngers" (Henley, 1994) has been reprinted in Appendix A on pages 267 - 273.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Henley, M. (1994). A self-control curriculum for troubled youngsters. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Problems,* 3(1), 40 - 46.

SELF-ESTEEM TRAINING

Self-esteem training helps students feel competent and valued; self-esteem training gives students choices and allows them to experiment, make mistakes, and learn in nonthreatening situations (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

SELF-MANAGEMENT

Self-management techniques have been used successfully to increase students' appropriate behaviors and decrease inappropriate behaviors (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993). The ultimate goal of self-management is to teach students to manage their own behavior. Initially, the teacher is the student's primary manager, but eventually the objective of self-management is to have the student "actively participate in the selection of the target behavior for improvement and the behavioral goals, in the antecedent and consequent events, and in the recording and evaluation of the behavioral changes. External or teacher control is minimal" (Algozzine, 1992, p. 3: 21). Students who learn to self-manage "are not only active participants in their own improved performance, but they perceive themselves as more competent as well" (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993).

Some advantages of teaching students to regulate their own behavior are:

- It involves students actively participating in the development of their programs, encouraging them to take responsibility for their own behavior.

- The approach is proactive rather then reactive. That is, it teaches students skills that can be used to prevent challenging behaviors from occurring.

- It can produce more enduring changes in students' behaviors. That is, students may manage their behavior even when interventions have been removed and there are no teachers present to supervise (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994).

Self-monitoring teaches students to keep track of their feelings, thoughts and behavior. Students may also be required to make judgments about the quality of their thoughts or behavior. A self-monitoring checklist may include questions such as:

- What happened?
- How were you feeling?
- What positive or negative comments did you tell yourself before you acted?

- Were there positive or negative reactions from others?
- What did you tell yourself about how you acted?
- What positive or negative comments did you tell yourself after you acted? (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994).

Self-instruction teaches students to think before, during and after they act. Through self-instruction, students can learn to prompt themselves to calm down, talk themselves through the steps of a procedure to control anger, use problem, solving routines to come up with a plan of action to resolve a conflict, respond to teasing, problem solve, organize their school work, study for an exam, or write a theme. The following is an example of a six-step procedure used by Weissberg to teach students to solve problems:

- Stop, tell yourself to calm down and think before you act.
- Say what the problem is and how you feel.
- Set a positive goal.
- Think of many solutions.
- Think ahead to what might happen.
- Act out your best choice.

(Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994)

Rhode, Jenson, and Reavis (1993) offer the following guidelines for implementing a self-management program:

1. Begin to introduce self-management soon after the behavior has reached an acceptable level with the teacher managing it.

2. Specially define the behavior the student will monitor and evaluate. The teacher must explain exactly what behavior is to be monitored and exactly how it will be recorded. Giving examples and nonexamples of the behavior and role playing can be very helpful.

3. Design a simple means of counting and recording the behavior. The simpler the system the more accurate the student is likely to be in counting and recording the behavior.

4. Set time limits. Predetermine periods of 15, 30, or 60 minutes during which the student will count and record behavior. Most students will find monitoring their behavior definitely too overwhelming. The teacher may wish to begin with a small period of time and gradually increase to a longer time period as the student becomes more proficient.

5. Check the student's accuracy on a random basis. Rewards should be built-in for students who are counting and recording their behavior accurately.

6. Give the student ample opportunity to practice the process of self-management and provide positive, corrective feedback (p. 114).

Self-reward teaches students to give themselves positive feedback for how they are acting. Although it is important for all of us to seek out and receive appreciation from others, it is equally important to avoid exclusively depending on others to reward our behavior (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994).

Procedures for teaching self-monitoring self-instruction, and self-reward usually include some combination of the following (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994):

- Modeling: The teacher and other students model using a strategy aloud around targeted situations (e.g., completing assignments, expressing feelings, dealing with anger, staying out of fights, writing a theme).
- Role Playing: The teacher and students role play using a strategy to focus on targeted situations.
- Coaching in Naturally Occurring Situations: Adults and peers provide prompting and feedback on the use of a strategy in naturally occurring situations.

"Self-Management: Education's Ultimate Goal" (Carter, 1993), including a Self-Management Planning Form, has been reprinted on pages 277 - 280 in Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Carter, J. F. (1993, Spring). Self management: Education's ultimate goal. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, pp. 28-31.

Edwards, L. L. (1980). Curriculum modifications as a strategy for helping regular classroom behavior-disordered students. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 12* (8), 1 - 11.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Shapiro, E., & Cole., C. (1994). *Behavior change in the classroom: Self-Management interventions*. Port Chester, NY: National Professional Resources.

Smith, D. J., Nelson, J. R., & Young, K. R. (1988). Self-management procedure for serving behaviorally disordered children and youth in rural settings. *Rural Special Education Quarterly, 9* (2), 16 - 19.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). *Self-Control Training*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Steere, B. F. (1988). *Becoming an effective classroom manager*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

Tauber, R. T. (1990). *Classroom management from A to Z*. Fort Worth, TX: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Topper, K., Williams, W., Leo, K., Hamilton, R., & Fox, T. (1994). *A positive approach to understanding and addressing challenging behaviors*. Burlington, VT: University Affiliated Program of Vermont, Center for Developmental Disabilities.

SELF-MONITORING

Self-monitoring is a specific type of self-management in which a student observes and collects data on his own behavior. Students are given a recording form on which they mark down each time a certain behavior occurs. "The very act of marking down and keeping track of the behavior will often by itself change how often the behavior occurs. Disruptive behaviors generally decrease and appropriate behaviors increase when they are self-monitored. Good self-monitoring programs include well-defined behaviors, an easy to use recording form, and rewards" (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1994, pp. 49 - 51). Steps involved in self-monitoring include:

- Step 1: Determine the specific behavior that the student is to self-monitor. Draft a contract for self-monitoring (see sample on page 283 of Appendix A)
- Step 2: Select an appropriate recording form for the student to use (see samples on page 287 of Appendix A).
- Step 3: Define the target behavior for the student and include several examples.
- Step 4: Define the time period in which the student will self-monitor the behavior.

- Step 5: Give the student a trial run monitoring the behavior and using the recording form.
- Step 6: Show the student how to record targeted behavior occurrences on a weekly summary sheet (see sample on page 291 of Appendix A) .
- Step 7: Tie the self-monitoring program to some type of contingency to make the behavioral change permanent. (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1994, p. 50).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Lloyd, J. W., Kauffman, J. M., & Kupersmidt, J. B. (1990). Integration of students with behavior disorders in regular education environments. In K. Gadow (Ed.) *Advances in learning and behavioral disabilities* (pp. 225 - 257). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, Inc.

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). *Technical Assistance Manuals.* Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1994). *The tough kid tool box.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). *Self-Monitoring.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

SERVICE LEARNING

Service learning offers students the opportunity to develop positive self-concepts and confidence in their ability to create change through participation in volunteer community service projects. Service learning programs emphasize student strengths rather than weaknesses, power rather than helplessness, worthiness rather than worthlessness, and giving versus dependency (Ioele & Dolan, 1992).

A profile of a service learning program at Pathway School in Jeffersonville, PA has been reprinted on pages 295 - 298 of Appendix A. A unique service learning program that matches incarcerated wards of the juvenile court in Los Angeles County with severely disabled students is profiled on pages 301 - 302 of Appendix A (Mayer, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Ioele, M. D., & Dolan, A. L. Teaching courage: Service learning at Pathway School. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Problems, 1*(3), 20 - 23.

Mayer, L. (1992, July). Moving to independence: A partnership helping at-risk youth. *CEA News & Notes*, p. 1, 10.

SHAPING

Shaping is a technique used to teach students new behaviors. Beginning with the student's current behavior, a new behavior is gradually shaped and learned (Evans, Evans, & Schmid, 1989). Successive approximations of the desired behavior are reinforced until the desired behavior is learned. Steps in the shaping process include:

1) Determine the ultimate goal (desired behavior)
2) Start with behavior already in student's repertoire
3) Start with behaviors that most closely resemble goal
4) Select appropriate step size
5) Stay at a step until mastery, but not longer
6) Watch for behavioral disintegration
7) Use effective reinforcer (AZ-TAS, 1992, p. 23)

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and instructional management.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING

Just as most students cannot read without instruction, many students will not naturally use appropriate social skills unless they are taught to do so. "For students to learn social skills, they must be instructed in what to do and what not to do. They must have opportunities to practice skills and receive corrective feedback and reinforcement for their practice of the skills" (Fad & Gilliam, 1993, p. 7).

The skills gained from this type of instruction can be beneficial to all students, but can be especially valuable to students with disabilities who need additional training in developing prosocial skills and improving interpersonal relationships. Students with emotional/behavioral problems often have difficulty in accurately perceiving social situations (Simpson, 1991). They often have skills deficits, performance deficits, and self-control deficits. These students need opportunities provided to them to practice interpreting social situations and acting appropriately.

Social skills instruction involves the use of a variety of methods and techniques, including the following:

Effective Social Skills Instruction

- Modeling both appropriate and inappropriate social behaviors through the use of films or videotapes, live demonstrations, puppets, books or mental imagery;
- Role playing and rehearsing activities that provides opportunities for students to practice social skills;
- Positively reinforcing techniques to encourage the continuation of skills learned;
- Teacher coaching with the use of prompting and encouragement to improve students' skills;
- Providing contingent reinforcement to help students acquire and maintain the social skills they need to learn;
- Providing training in problem-solving skills to improve deficient social skills; and
- Providing activities that increase the generalization of skills developed during training activities to application in other settings; this is especially important for students with emotional/behavioral problems who may learn social skills within the classroom but need additional practice and guidance in generalizing those skills to other settings (Educational Instruction, 1991; Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Educational instruction and services. (1991). In *California programs and services for students with serious emotional disturbances.* Sacramento: Resources in Special Education.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR TEACHING YOUNG CHILDREN SOCIAL COMPETENCE

For normally developing children, the acquisition and coordination of social skills is a gradual and natural part of their development. Young children with disabilities or children who are at risk for the development of disabilities, however, may need assistance in developing social competence. Some intervention strategies identified as useful (Lieber & Beckman, 1991) include:

- Placing children with more competent partners in social behavior;
- Placing children in dyads instead of larger groups to promote social interaction;
- Providing social toys that encourage social interaction rather than toys that are associated with more solitary play;
- Identifying classroom activities that encourage social exchange; and
- Teaching specific skills that contribute to social coordination, including intervening in children's imitation skills and sociodramatic play.

A number of commercially available social skills training programs are available on the market. While some are focused toward specific student populations, most of them can be used with both regular education and special education students. Many of these programs have the same basic components, including a) a checklist or rating scale designed to assess student social skills and identify areas in which instruction is needed, b) guidelines for developing specific skills, c) a recommended format for providing instruction, and d) activities designed to help in generalizing social skills to other settings (Educational Instruction, 1991). These programs may be used as a starting point for teachers who then adapt them to create their own strategies for integrating social skills training into their classroom curricula.

A more detailed explanation of PROSOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING and a description of commercial available programs is included in the *Prevention* document of this series.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Alberg, J., Cron, D., Eller, S., Nero, B., & Petry, C. (1993). *Social skills instruction for students with disabilities.* Bloomington: Council of Administrators of Special Education, Incorporated.

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Evans, W. H., Evans, S. S., & Schmid, R. E. (1989). *Behavior and instructional management.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Fad, K. & Gilliam, J. (1993). *Managing the behavior of disruptive students: Using social skills instruction as a preventive strategy.* Bloomington: Indiana University, Department of School Administration and Department of Special Education.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training.* New York: Guilford Press.

Lieber, J. & Beckman, P. J. (1991). Social coordination as a component of social competence in young children with disabilities. *Focus on Exceptional Children,* 24(2), 1 - 10.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Simpson, R. (1991). *Programming for aggressive and violent students. Exceptional children at risk: CEC Mini-Library.* Reston, VA: Council on Exceptional Children, ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children.

"STOP OR I'LL SHOOT"—MANAGING AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR

Using appropriate language to de-escalate aggressive behavior, setting the "stage" to encourage appropriate behavior, and establishing classroom rules of acceptable behavioral standards can help manage aggressive behaviors in the classroom and create a positive learning environment (Jacobs & Joseph, 1994). Highlights of these strategies– "It's all in the name," "Setting the Stage," and "Playing by the Rules"-- have been reproduced on pages 305 - 307 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Jacobs, L. J., & Joseph, D. G. (1994, April). *"Stop or I'll shoot": Managing aggressive behavior*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Council for Exceptional Children, Denver, CO.

STRESS MANAGEMENT

"It's getting harder and harder to be a kid," writes Earl Hipp in *Fighting invisible tigers: A stress management guide for teens* (1985). "Being under stress is like being inside a ball of rubber bands" p. 12. Helping students understand stress and learn various techniques of stress management can foster mental healthiness. This includes identifying stressors and reactions to stressors, nutrition, exercise, relaxation techniques, assertiveness training, interpersonal skills, problem solving, goal setting and risk taking (Hipp, 1985).

Long and Duffner (1980) recommend eight strategies teachers may use to make their classrooms supportive, understanding, and as stress-free as possible:

1) Forming a helping adult relationship;

2) Lowering school pressure;

3) Redirecting negative feelings into acceptable behavior;

4) Teaching students to accept disappointment and failure;

5) Have students complete one task at a time;

6) Let students help less fortunate students;

7) Separating from the stressful environment entirely; and

8) Help students seek professional help.

A description of each of these strategies is included in *Avoiding Power Struggles by Helping Students Cope with Stress* (Templeton, 1994) reprinted on pages 311 - 317 of Appendix A.

Carballo, Cohen, Danoff, Gale, Meyer, & Orton (1990) remind teachers that in order to reduce stress in their students, they need to be aware that students with disabilities need:

1) As much *certainty* and *consistency* as possible;

2) To be surrounded by *positive* people;

3) Help to face *change*;

4) Lessons in dealing with stress;

5) Help in coming to terms with *visible evidence* of their disability

6) Help in coping with *invisible* handicaps;

7) A chance to help others understand; and

8) Help in setting goals for themselves (p. 35).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Henderson, P. A., & Dickey, J. P. (1988, November). How do students perceive and cope with stress? *Middle School Journal*, pp. 16 - 17.

Hipp, E. (1985). *Fighting invisible tigers: A stress management guide for teens*. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

Long, N. J., & Duffner, B. (1980). How can we manage these children? In Long, N. J., Morse, W. C., & Newman, R. G. (Eds.), *Conflict in the classroom* (4th ed.) (pp. 233 - 241). Belmont, CA:; Wadsworth.

Peterson, J. S. (1993). *Talks with teens about self and stress*. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M. & Garrison, M. (1993). *Managing stress*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Swick, K. J. (1987). *Student stress: A classroom management system.* Washington, DC: National Education Association.

Swift, H. (1988, February). Teaching positive mental health to seventh graders. *Middle School Journal*, pp. 6 - 7.

Templeton, R. A. (1994). Avoiding power struggles by helping students cope with stress. In J. Marr, G. Sugai, & G. Tindal (Eds.), *The Oregon conference monograph 1994* (pp. 144 - 150). Eugene: University of Oregon.

STUDENT CRISIS PLAN

Having a student crisis plan at hand allows teachers to plan systematic interventions for students with emotional/behavioral problems when their behaviors are out of control and threatening to themselves and other (Myles & Simpson, 1994).

The student crisis plan sheet allows teachers to plan appropriate crisis interventions according to the individual behaviors of the student and provides a record for all staff members. The plan outlines what staff members might anticipate through each stage of the cycle of aggression--the frustration stage, the aggression stage, the defensiveness stage, and the self-control stage--in order to plan appropriate interventions for the student as he experiences each stage. Typical student behaviors and suggested teacher inventions for each stage are outlined here:

Phase 1: Frustration

Student behaviors:	fidgeting, swearing, making noises, ripping paper, breaking pencils, changing voice volume, making rapid movements, bursting into tears, and tensing muscles
Teacher interventions:	hurdle help, interest boosting, antiseptic bouncing, proximity control, and demonstrations that the teacher cares using emotional first aid techniques

Phase 2: Defensiveness

Student behaviors:	the student begins to lose control, lashes out verbally; student physically moves away from teacher
Teacher interventions:	teacher becomes more directive in setting limits that are enforceable and realistic; teacher draws attention to what should be done, not what is being done

3) Describe the challenging behavior.
4) Identify the communication of behavior.
5) Brainstorm and plan student support.
6) Identify replacement behaviors and decide how to teach them.
7) Plan how to respond to challenging behaviors.
8) Select other relevant skills to teach.
9) Monitor progress and plan for transitions.

An example of a Student Support Plan has been reprinted on page 327 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Topper, K., Williams, W., Leo, K., Hamilton, R., & Fox, T. (1994). *A positive approach to understanding and addressing challenging behaviors*. Burlington, VT: University Affiliated Program of Vermont, Center for Developmental Disabilities.

STUDENT SUPPORT TEAMS

"Collaborative student support teams are formed to provide support to students, their teachers and families. Collaborative teams can be composed of as few as two people, with varying perspectives and areas of knowledge and expertise. Team members work toward shared goals, equally assume leadership roles and task responsibilities, adopt group norms, and establish a process for solving problems and resolving conflicts. In other words, team members sink or swim together! The key is that members are supported and are not alone in addressing difficult challenges" (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994, p. 30). Guidelines for establishing a team have been reprinted on pages 331 - 337 of Appendix A.

Phase 3: Aggressive or Passive Aggressive Acts

Student behaviors: the student acts out

Teacher interventions: verbal cueing, physical cueing, physically holding or restraining the student; holding should be done to protect the student from hurting himself or others and to help him regain self-control but never as a counter aggressive act

Phase 4: Re-establishment of self-control

Student behaviors: student relaxes, defenses are down, student may be in a fantasy world or sulking mood or feel embarrassed at his lack of self-control (Myles & Simpson, 1994)

Before resorting to crisis intervention, teachers should consider:

- Is the student out of control and a threat to himself or others?
- Have less-restrictive interventions been tried?
- Can I do this alone, or do I need help?
- Should the other students be removed? Myles & Simpson, 1994)

A student crisis plan sheet has been reproduced on pages 321 - 323 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders*. San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

STUDENT SUPPORT PLAN

Student support teams can work together to develop student support plans for students with challenging behaviors (Topper, Williams, Leo, Hamilton, & Fox, 1994). The nine steps included in the creation of this plan are:

1) Establish a collaborative team.

2) Identify the student's strengths.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Topper, K., Williams, W., Leo, K., Hamilton, R., & Fox, T. (1994). *A positive approach to understanding and addressing challenging behaviors.* Burlington, VT: University Affiliated Program of Vermont, Center for Developmental Disabilities.

TEACHER ASSISTANCE TEAMS

A teacher assistance team is a problem-solving group that meets to determine strategies for coping with day-to-day problems and individual needs of students in regular classroom settings. Designed to be a first-step alternative to referring students for special education services (also see section on *PREREFERRAL* on page 39), the team assists teachers to identify and establish interventions for students with academic and/or behavior problems. More specifically, team members may clarify problems, suggest possible actions, and evaluate suggested interventions. Members may include teachers, other staff members, and parents. The focus of responsibility, decision making, and communication rests with the teachers (Algozzine, 1992). While team composition may vary, three critical features should be considered when determining membership:

1) multidisciplinary membership with diverse representation to maximize the team's resources,
2) balanced representation of regular educators, specialists, and support services, and
3) indigenous team members who are familiar with day to day operations (South Atlantic, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

Morrow, G. (1987). *The compassionate school: A practical guide to educating abused and traumatized children.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

TEACHER LANGUAGE

What teachers say–and the way they say it–can be crucial in establishing effective classroom discipline. "Effective use of language–especially helpful, direct, positive, non-punitive words–can improve communication, relationships between students and teacher, and classroom management" (McDaniel, 1987, pp. 81 - 82). McDaniel (1987) makes the following suggestions regarding teacher language that can promote appropriate behavior:

- "I like the way . . ." (use positive statements);
- "WHAT are you doing?" (confront misbehavior in a non-threatening fashion);
- "I need you to . . ." (make direct assertions);
- "When you . . . and that makes me feel . . ." (use I-messages);
- Talk sparingly;
- Talk softly;
- Talk privately;
- Talk confidently;
- Talk efficiently. (pp. 80-81)

INFORMATION SOURCES:

McDaniel, T. R. (1987). *Improving student behavior: Essays on classroom management and motivation*. New York: University Press of America.

TEACHER MOVEMENT

"Possibly one of the most effective and easy proactive strategies for teachers to use is simply to move around the classroom" (Rhodes, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993, p. 24). The more time a teacher spends behind a desk, the more likely a disruptive student is to misbehave. Rhodes, Jenson, and Reavis recommend "a random walking approach" with particular emphasis on where students with disruptive behaviors sit. "Walking around permits a teacher to anticipate problems and to handle them before they get out of hand. It also allows a teacher to subtly reinforce students" (p. 24).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Good, T. L. & Brophy, J. E. (1987). *Looking in classrooms* (4th ed). New York: Harper and Row.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

TEACHER PRAISE

Praise includes "any verbal or non-verbal action by the teacher that indicates approval of or satisfaction with an individual student's behavior or with a group of students' behavior" (Reavis, Kukic, Jenson, & Morgan, 1993, Teacher Praise, p. 1). Teachers who "make effective use of praise improve classroom atmosphere and reduce behavior disruptions so that all students benefit from a positive education experience" (Reavis, Kukic, Jenson, & Morgan, Teacher Praise, p. 1). Teacher praise does not require a lot of training, complex materials, forms, or data collection. It is one of the least cumbersome and most effective interventions available for classroom use. Examples of praise include a smile, a positive comment about a good job or good effort, and an expression of appreciation given frequently with genuine enthusiasm.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). *Technical Assistance Manuals*. Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

TEACHING GOOD CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

Good behavior is not something that teachers can automatically assume from their students. Teachers need to teach the skills of behavior in much the same way other skills are taught (McDaniel, 1987; Colvin & Sugai, 1991). Use of an instructional model involves the application of non-punitive correction procedures which can be used to manage problem behavior in a proactive and positive manner (Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993). The steps involved in this teaching process include:

- Determining the specific behaviors you plan to teach;
- Discussing the behavior with your class in an objective and instructional format;
- Modeling the behavior you expect (see MODELING section on page 29);
- Staging a practice session with students;
- Teaching the students the cues you will use to prompt or remind them of the expected behavior;
- Applying the learnings above systematically at the earliest opportunity to enhance the transfer of learning to the real life situation in the classroom (McDaniel, 1987).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Colvin, G., Kameenui, E. J., & Sugai, G. (1993). *Reconceptualizing behavior management and school-wide discipline in general education*. Eugene: University of Oregon.

Colvin, G., & Sugai, G. (1988). *Proactive strategies for managing social behavior problems: An instructional approach*. Education and Treatment of Children, 11(4), 341 - 348.

Colvin, G., & Sugai, G. (1991). School-wide discipline: A behavior instruction approach. In J. Marr. and G. Tindal (Eds.), *The Oregon conference monograph* 1992 (pp. 41 - 45). Eugene, OR: University of Oregon.

McDaniel, T. R. (1987). *Improving student behavior: Essays on classroom management and motivation*. New York: University Press of America.

TIME ON COMPUTER PROGRAM

The Time on Computer (TOC) program is based on the use of the computer as a reinforcer for appropriate behavior (Keyes, 1994). The program merges computer assisted instruction with a classroom management system entitled the Ladder System which allows students to move through various levels which place increasing responsibility for behavior change with the student. In a pilot program the TOC was effective in promoting and maintaining behavior changes such as following rules and procedures for computer sessions, behaving appropriately before and during sessions, and completing specified assigned work before earning access to the computer.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Keyes, G. K. (1994, Fall). Motivating reluctant students: The time on computer program. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, pp. 20 - 23.

TIME OUT

Time out is "not a place, rather it is a procedure whereby a student is removed from a reinforcing environment to a less reinforcing environment when misbehavior occurs" (Rhodes, Jenson, & Reavis, 1993, p.71). In-class time out may work for mild behavioral problems. More potent forms of time out may require that the student leave the classroom. Interclass Time Out is a preplanned procedure whereby a student is removed to another classroom with different aged peers for a period of 20 to 30 minutes to work on an academic assignment. Seclusionary Time Out is the most severe time out procedure in which the student is placed in a special time out room that is supervised by a staff member.

Rhodes, Jenson, & Reavis (1993) recommend several steps to enhance the effectiveness of time out procedures:

- Make sure the reinforcement rate in the classroom is sufficiently high as students cannot be given time out from a nonreinforcing environment;
- Combine time out with a *PRECISION REQUEST* (see page 38) sequence;
- When the student finishes time out, restate the original request; do not allow the student to escape the request by being placed in time out;
- Use a reasonable amount of time for each time out episode; and
- Reinforce students with challenging behaviors for not needing time out.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Edwards, L. L. (1980). Curriculum modifications as a strategy for helping regular classroom behavior-disordered students. *Focus on Exceptional Children* 12 (8), 1 - 11.

Goldstein, A. P., Harootunian, B., & Conoley, J. C. (1994). *Student aggression: Prevention, management, and replacement training*. New York: Guilford Press.

Rhode, G., Jenson, W. R., & Reavis, H. K. (1993). *The tough kid book: Practical classroom management strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

TOKEN REINFORCEMENT PROGRAM

Using a token reinforcement program, students are given tokens as rewards for appropriate behavior. The tokens have no value in themselves but may be exchanged for back-up reinforcers such as prizes or privileges. Factors which must be considered when setting up a token reinforcement program include a) a set of instructions must be given to students specifying the behaviors which will be reinforced; b) tokens must be made contingent upon behavior; and c) a set up roles must be set up to regulate the exchange of tokens for back-up reinforcers (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993, p. 28). Token systems may be very simple or complex; the flexibility of a an effective token system can contribute to its endurance (Algozzine, 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

TRANSITIONS

Smooth transitions from one activity to another are an effective way to prevent behavioral problems during transition periods. Transitions can take as little as 30 seconds or as long as nine minutes, depending upon the effectiveness of the teacher in managing transitions (Steere, 1988). Smooth transitions do not "just happen" but are the result of "students following rules of transition that have been identified, discussed, modeled, and then consistently adhered to" (Steere, p. 124). Transitions are made more smoothly by teachers who are prepared to begin the next activity; prepared teachers also invite cooperation by praising students for desired behaviors.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Steere, B. F. (1988). *Becoming an effective classroom manager: A resource for teachers.* Albany: State University of New York Press.

TURTLE TECHNIQUE

The Turtle technique is a way to teach elementary students self-control. The technique involves the telling of a story about a young turtle who has trouble controlling his temper. An old, wise turtle teaches the younger one to stop and retreat into his shell when he feels he is losing his temper. The Turtle technique teaches four steps in behavior management: 1) stopping the behavior (by withdrawing like a turtle), 2) relaxing, 3) problem-solving, and 4) reinforcing turtle behavior (Schneider & Robin, 1976).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Schneider, M., & Robin, A. (1976). *Turtle manual.* Stony Brook, NY: State University of New York, Psychology Department.

VALUES CLARIFICATION

Values clarification is designed to help students "increase their awareness of the relationships among their choices, values and behavior. Increasing each student's awareness and value clarity can result in more positive, purposeful, and prosocial behavior" (Abrams, 1992, p. 170). The emphasis of values clarification is not placed on the content of students' values but on the process of forming them. "In the active formulation and examination of values, students become aware of their own feelings and beliefs, and the means by which others form their own value systems" (Browning, Ellsworth, Lawrence, McCarville, Wicks, & Wildman, 1993, p. 38).

"Values Clarification for Students with Emotional Disabilities" (Abrams, 1992) has been reprinted on pages 341 - 343 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Abrams, B. J. (1992). Values clarification for students with emotional disabilities. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 24* (3), 28 - 33.

VIDEOTAPE FEEDBACK

The use of videotape feedback can be an effective tool to improve social interactions of students with emotional/behavior disabilities. It is one means of incorporating self-monitoring and self-evaluation of students without disturbing the natural course of peer interactions. Video feedback offers students an opportunity to view themselves "in action" in normal classroom activities, compare their behavior to that of their peers, process their behavior, and make a commitment to make a change (Jarman, 1993). Students are quick to see what they are doing and how it differs from other students' behavior. From their observations, students draft their own improvement plans. In successive video sessions, students can assess their own behavioral progress.

This strategy often works where others fail because students have control over making changes and can take pride in initiating changes. Videotapes provide students with more accurate feedback about their behavior than teacher observations and provide a permanent record. Because the self-assessment and feedback aspect of this technique are individualized for each student, videotaping can also be an effective supplement to more general social skills training (Kern-Dunlap, L., Dunlap, G., Clarke, S., Childs, K., White, R. L., & Steward, M. P., 1992).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Jarman, C. (1993). Video feedback for child behavior issues. Unpublished paper.

Kern-Dunlap, L., Dunlap, G., Clarke, S., Childs, K., White, R. L., & Stewart, M. P. (1992). Effects of a videotape feedback package on the peer interactions of children with serious behavioral and emotional challenges. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 25* (2), 355 - 364.

WHAT IF? CHART

A *What If? Chart* summarizes the classroom management plan "in terms of preplanned positive consequences, reductive consequences, and consequences for very serious problem behaviors" (Rhode, Jenson, & Reavis, 1994, p. 181). The left side of the chart lists positive consequences students will receive if they follow classroom rules. The right side lists reductive consequences for not following rules which increase in severity from the top to the bottom of the chart. A sample has been reproduced on page 347 of Appendix A. The chart may include a "Mystery Motivator" including rewards which can be given to students on a random basis or to students who have shown the most improvement, etc.

"YES" AND "NO" BAG

The "Yes" and "No" Bag program is a system of practical consequences involving the entire class (Jenson, 1993). Easy to implement, the system is primarily positive and requires little preparation time or expense. A description of the program has been reprinted on page 351 of Appendix A.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Jenson, W. (1993, Fall). The "Yes" and "No" bag: A practical program for classroom consequences, *The Best Times*, p. 3.

School Interventions

For many students with challenging behaviors, classroom interventions alone may not suffice to meet behavioral needs. These students may require more individualized treatment and more structured programs in smaller, more restrictive classroom settings to learn more competent behavioral skills. This section discusses best practices, programs, and models that have proved effective with this population of students. Many of the interventions described in the Classroom Interventions section of this document will work effectively with these students as well.

Jones (1992) proposes 12 components that make an effective program for students with emotional disabilities. These include:

1) An entry procedure that places an emphasis on examining environmental factors that can be altered to successfully retain students in the mainstream;
2) A positive, caring staff that employs effective communication skills, communicates high expectations and models mature adult behavior;
3) A competency-based instructional program;
4) Consistent use of proven classroom management techniques;
5) A general behavior management program that provides uniform structure and positive reinforcement for all students in the program;
6) An individualized behavior management program for each student;
7) A behavioral counseling approach;
8) A social skills training program;
9) Consistent use of interpretive and confrontational feedback;
10) A program for providing parents with training and support;
11) A program for providing assistance and training to regular classroom teachers; and
12) A procedure for reintegrating students into the regular school program (Jones, 1987, p. 95).

Morgan (1993) discusses elements that build a comprehensive, quality program for students with behavioral disorders: 1) use of effective instructional practices, 2) monitoring progress systematically, 3) providing a comprehensive array of services, 4) involving parents, 5) actively programming for generalization, 6) a focus on prevention, 7) involvement of regular education, and 8) sustaining the intervention effort (pp. 1, 5). Morgan's article, entitled "Quality Practices in Programs for Students with Behavioral Disorders," has been reprinted on pages 355 - 356 of Appendix B.

Verre, J. M. (1994) has developed a framework for the development and evaluation of services for students with emotional and behavioral disabilities that includes program purpose and program quality. This framework has been reprinted on pages 359 - 362 of Appendix B.

BOYS TOWN EDUCATIONAL MODEL

The Boys Town Educational Model includes four components for addressing both appropriate and inappropriate behaviors (Fister, S., 1994). These include a Social Skills Curriculum, Motivation System, Teaching Interactions, and Administrative Intervention. The combined use of these program components allows educators to help all students, regardless of their educational placement, to build social skills. The Boys Town Education Model is "firmly rooted in principles of applied behavior analysis and social learning theory. Its underling premise is that behavior is learned through feedback on behavior and its environmental consequences" (Bandura, 1969; Wells, 1991). This behavioral model involves the identification of prosocial behavioral expectations, the effective use of instructional strategies to teach those expectations, the application of an incentive system, and the effective use of reinforcements (Wells, 1991). A description of the program has been reprinted on page 365 - 366 of Appendix B.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Fister, S. (1993, Fall). Boys Town social skills program: An overview. *The Best Times*, p. 6.

Wells, P. (1991). *Boys Town educational model*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 340 183)

CHAMPS

The Children are Making Progress in School (CHAMPS) is an intensive, behavioral remediation program used with elementary school students in grades two through five with behavioral problems (Quality Education Initiatives, 1993). A profile of the Pennsylvania program has been reprinted on page 369 - 370 of Appendix B.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Champs. In *Quality Education Initiatives*. (1993). Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

COMMONWEALTH CLASSROOM

The Commonwealth Classroom is a model used to provide support within the general education setting for middle school students with behavioral problems or poor school adjustment (Quality Education Initiatives, 1993). A profile of the Pennsylvania program has been reprinted on page 373 - 374 of Appendix B.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Commonwealth Classroom. In *Quality Education Initiatives*. (1993). Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

COMP: CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

COMP is a proactive program of classroom management that has demonstrated increases in student appropriate and on-task behavior and in student achievement. The program seeks to help teachers improve their overall instructional and behavioral management skills through planning, implementing, and maintaining effective classroom practices. An additional goal is improvement of student task engagement and reduction of inappropriate and disruptive behavior through well-planned, appropriate tasks and activities. COMP employs a variety of checklists, guidelines, and case studies in group process activities to guide teachers in directly applying concepts to their classroom.

A copy of Classroom Organization and Management Program Focusing Checklists has been reprinted on pages 377 - 378 of Appendix B.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

COMP: *Classroom Organization and Management Program*. (1994). Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University.

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Fax: (615) 322-8999

A CONTINUUM OF SERVICES FOR MANAGING STUDENT BEHAVIOR

Portions of the *Resource Guide for Oregon Educators on Developing Student Responsibility* have been reprinted on pages 381 - 402 which explain the Continuum of Services for managing student behavior adopted by many school districts in Oregon. The continuum "encourages student responsibility and the management of student behavior through a preventive, problem-solving process that allows for appropriate provision of services for all students" (Resource Guide, 1989, p. 3).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

A resource guide for Oregon educators on developing student responsibility. (1989). Salem: Oregon Department of Education.

HEWETT'S CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PLAN

Hewett's management plan consists of three components: 1) a developmental sequence of educational goals, 2) a learning triangle, and 3) an engineered classroom. These components are interrelated to emphasize the student's goals and methods of obtaining them. Hewett's class educational plan consists of many important ingredients including developmental learning sequence, learning triangle, check-mark reward system, and physical design of classroom. The plan can be adapted to fit the demands of particular classrooms (Dice, 1993).

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders*. San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Hewett, F. M., & Taylor, F. D. (1980). *The emotionally disturbed child in the classroom: A developmental strategy for educating children with maladaptive behaviors*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

RE-ED MODEL

The Re-Ed Model, developed by the Positive Education Program (PEP) in Cleveland, OH, reflects an integration of disciplines that promote a creative blending of best practices to serve students with emotional disorders. "A Model Re-ED Classroom for Troubled Students" (Fecser, 1993) has been reprinted on pages 405 - 410 of Appendix B.

INFORMATION SOURCES:

Fecser, F. A. (1993, Winter). A model Re-ED classroom for troubled students. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Problems*, pp. 15 - 20.

References

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Abrams, B. J. (1992). Values clarification for students with emotional disabilities. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 24* (3), 28 - 33.

Alberg, J., Cron, D., Eller, S., Nero, B., & Petry, C. (1993). *Social skills instruction for students with disabilities*. Bloomington: Council of Administrators of Special Education, Incorporated.

Algozzine, B. (1992). *Problem behavior management: Educator's resource service* (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.

AZ-TAS Themes & Issues: Incorporating the use of non-aversive behavior management. Part I. (1992). Phoenix: Arizona Department of Education.

Bandura, A. (1969). *Principles of behavior modification*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Benjamin, M. P. (1992, Summer). Serving minority children who are severely emotionally disturbed and their families: The need for culturally competent systems of care. *OSERS News in Print*, pp. 37 - 39.

Browning, A., Ellsworth, P., Lawrence, L., McCarville, S., Wicks, C., & Wildman, G. (1993). *Behavior disability curriculum for the ICCSD K-12*. Iowa City, IA: Iowa City Community School District.

Carballo, J. B., Cohen, M. K., Danoff, B., Gale, M., Meyer, J. M., & Orton, C. E. (1990). *Survival guide for the first-year special education teacher*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Carter, J. F. (1993, Spring). Self management: Education's ultimate goal. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, pp. 28 - 31.

Champs. In *Quality Education Initiatives*. (1993). Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

Charles, C. M., & Barr, K. B. (1992). *Building classroom discipline: From models to practice*. White Plains, NY: Longman Publishing Group.

Colvin, G., & Sugai, G. (1988). Proactive strategies for managing social behavior problems: An instructional approach. *Education and Treatment of Children, 11* (4), 341 - 348.

Commonwealth Classroom. In *Quality Education Initiatives*. (1993). Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

COMP: Classroom Organization and Management Program. (1994). Nashville, TN: COMP, Vanderbilt University.

Curwin, R. L., & Mendler, A. N. (1988). *Discipline with dignity.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Dice, M. L. (1993). *Intervention strategies for children with emotional or behavioral disorders.* San Diego: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

Educational instruction and services. (1991). In *California programs and services for students with serious emotional disturbances.* Sacramento: Resources in Special Education.

Edwards, L. L. (1980). Curriculum modifications as a strategy for helping regular classroom behavior-disordered students. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 12* (8), 1 - 11.

Eggert, L. L. (1994). *Anger management for youth: Stemming aggression and violence.* Bloomington: National Education Service.

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Appendix A
Classroom Interventions

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Classroom
Interventions

Wright, D. B., Gurman, H. B., & the California Association of School Psychologists/Diagnostic Center Positive Intervention Task Force. (1994). Appendix I: Analyzing behavior. In D. B. Wright, H. B. Gurman, & the California Associaton of School Psychologists/Diagnostic Center Positive Intervention Task Force. *Positive intervention for serious behavior problems* (p. 247). Sacramento: Resources in Special Education.

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Appendix I.

Analyzing Behavior

Who, What, When, Why, and Where?[1]

Who Who is present when the problem behavior occurs? How many people? Who was about to come in or who was about to leave? Who were the adults, children, teachers, parents? Were people present who ordinarily would not have been (e.g., strangers or people in unusual attire)? Who was not present who ordinarily would be present? Does the problem behavior occur more often when a particular person is present? To whom was the behavior directed? Answers to these questions will help determine if a particular person or grouping of people is related to the problem behavior.

What What was the behavior? What was happening when the problem behavior occurred? Was the student being asked to do something? Was the task too hard or too easy? Was the student playing freely, or were the tasks and time more structured? What were other people doing? Was the event or task almost over? Was it about time to move on to something else? Did the problem behavior occur at the beginning, middle, or end of the event or task? What is happening when the problem behaviors do not occur or are less likely to occur?

When This question is complex because it also relates to when the behavior does not occur. Are problems (or no problems) more likely to occur in the morning, before lunch, bedtime, free play, going out, Mondays, Fridays, and so on? Within an activity, does the behavior occur at the beginning, middle, or end?

Where In what location does the problem behavior happen most often? Does it occur in the kitchen, bedroom, hallway, classroom? What other locations? Even more specifically, does it occur in a particular part of a certain location (e.g., near the window or door, close to a closet where a favorite toy is kept) Where does it not occur?

Why What is the purpose of the behavior? This question, obviously, is the most difficult to answer. But after the information has been gathered from the other questions (e.g., who, what, when, where) the answer to this question may be more apparent.

With this question, you are trying to determine what function the behavior serves for the student that is, why does he or she behave this way (what is happening), at this time (when), in this location (where), and among these people (who)?

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[1] Based on an excerpt that appeared in *Why is My Child Hurting? Positive Approaches to Dealing with Difficult Behaviors*, A monograph for Parents of Children with Disabilities by Susan Lehr, Center on Human Policy, Syracuse University (1989) for the Federation for Children with Special Needs, Boston: MA.

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Appendix D.3

Behavior Contract

Name of Student Jane Smith Grade 7 Date 12-1-84

School Anyplace Middle School Contract Monitor* John Smith, Counselor

Reason for Contract Jane is making a potentially difficult transition from residential treatment to public school. In her previous educational placement, Jane was being provided with services to meet the special needs of seriously emotionally disturbed students under the provisions of PL 94-142. Following her discharge it was uncertain whether or not she would continue to meet criteria. This behavior contract is intended to provide Jane with additional instructions and encouragements to be able to meet the expectations held for all students attending Anyplace Middle School.

Student Expectation for Responsible Behavior:

1. Follow all classroom and school rules.
2. Handle anger in the right way.
3. Take responsibility for her bladder problem.

Student Choices

Responsible Choices (Ways to Meet Expectations)	**Irresponsible Choices** (Choosing Negative Consequences)
1. Read rules; ask teachers about rules; review rules as a family.	1. Make up excuses for why you break rules; blame others for your action.
2. Negotiate contract with each teacher regarding appropriate choices.	2. Grab objects and use inappropriately; hitting, cussing out or breaking all the rules that you know; slamming doors; wetting.
3. Limit water intake; go to the restroom before class, at lunch, and once in the afternoon. Jane will bring a change of clothes and a plastic bag to keep in the office. Jane will ask quietly to be excused from class to change if necessary.	3. Draw attention to wetting; blaming others for wetting.
4. Take medicine each lunch period to control possible seizures.	

**Staff member responsible for contract development, application, and review.*

Student Consequences

Consequences for Responsible Behavior

At School:

1. May participate fully in all extracurricular and special activities.
2. Recognition for positive behavior at assemblies.
3. "Gotcha" tickets for especially noteworthy positive behavior.
4. Letter home for positive behavior.
5. Sent to the principal with a note of praise.

At Home:

1. With a note home from the principal about responsible behavior, there will be a special treat from home.
2. Positive reports in weekly meetings at school with result in special treat at home.

Consequences for Irresponsible Behavior

At School:

1. Warning (first time) or name on board.
2. Name with one check results in a pink detention slip for which Jane must inform parents and serve 15 minutes detention.
3. Name with two checks results in a pink slip for which Jane must inform parents and serve 30 minutes detention.
4. Name with three checks will result in being sent out of class to the office and possible suspension.
5. Jane will be sent out of class with no warning if misbehavior is severe or for wetting when acting out anger.

At Home:

1. If Jane is suspended, there will be no TV, no radio, or not participation in family fun activities.

Contract Monitor Agrees to:

1. Consistently apply stated consequences for both responsible and irresponsible behavior.
2. Meet weekly with student and parent to review contract.
3. Review contract with staff as appropriate.
4. Meet after one month with Jane and parents to review progress and modify contract as appropriate.
5. Insure that Jane and teachers develop individual contracts for responsible choices regarding anger.
6. Let teachers and staff know about seizure and bladder problems so that they can be supportive.

Student Signature ______________________________ Date ________________

Contract Monitor Signature ______________________________ Date ________________

Parent Signature ______________________________ Date ________________
(as appropriate)

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). Contracting to enhance motivation. In K. H. Reavis, S. J. Kukic, W. R. Jenson, & D. P. Morgan. *Technical Assistance Manuals* (p. 1 - 9). Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

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Contracting to Enhance Motivation

Objectives

By the end of this module you will know:

- ✔ What components and characteristics make behavioral contracts effective.
- ✔ Steps to take to implement behavioral contracting effectively.
- ✔ How to trouble shoot when problems arise in the use of behavioral contracting.
- ✔ Cautions in using behavioral contracting.

Introduction

When the word, "contract," is used, we generally think of corporate mergers or sports stars signing agreements for millions of dollars. However, contracts have an everyday meaning for most of us. When we buy cars, we sign contract agreements for repayment. Even a car's warranty is a contract for service if there is a problem with the car. When we get married, the marriage vows are a form of a contract and the marriage license is legal proof of the exchange of those vows. Even when we took our teaching position, most of us signed an employment contract which specified our salary and benefits for an exchange of services. Most of these teaching contracts also had a penalty clause for quitting the job without proper notice.

We use contracts for many adult behaviors because they are explicit and set expectations. For similar reasons, they can be used in classrooms. Contracts can be particularly helpful for enhancing academic motivation in students where expectations are important and explicit exchanges of consequences are needed.

Are Behavioral Contracts Effective?

The answer to this question is "yes" within limits. Clearly, the research literature has demonstrated that contracts can be effective in improving academic productivity in a classroom, homework completion, classroom behavior, and school attendance. In order for a contract to be effective, the student must be capable of producing the required behavior (at least) and the delay in delivering a positive reward must not be too long. Examples of using contracts to improve academic motivation and classroom behavior are provided below.

Academics

Contracting has been used in several circumstances to improve academic motivation and performance in students. Kirschenbaum, Dielman, and Karloy (1982) contracted with high school dropouts to increase classroom participation and homework production in earning their GEDs. The simple reward used in this study was a positive letter signed by the teachers and directors of the school to the student's counselors (the counselors controlled the student's finances). In this study, appropriate classroom participation and academic gains, as measured by the IOWA achievement test, increased. However, homework improvements were only slight.

In a similar study, Kelley and Stokes (1982) contracted with 13 youths enrolled in a vocational training program for disadvantaged youths. Students were paid according to how they fulfilled their academic productivity goals. The students had been paid to attend the program; however, the teacher indicated that minimal progress was made. The administrator of the program reported that repeated threats including coercive threats to be dropped from the program had no impact on the students' academic motivation. However, making the student's payments dependent on academic production dramatically increased the number of academic items completed by the students.

Behavior

Contracting has also been used to improve several types of behavior including substance abuse, school attendance, and appropriate classroom behavior. A unique approach is the contracting-based "Student Oriented Classroom" (Basalel-Azrin, Azrin, & Armstrong, 1977). The procedures were used in a fifth grade classroom in which the teacher requested assistance for fighting and uncooperative behavior from the students. The procedures included establishing basic classroom rules for the students and teacher. The contracting component involved giving students daily feedback (1 to 3 minutes) on their individual contracts in following the classroom rules and a weekly conference (5 minutes) on their progress. Student classroom privileges were based on their contract performance. This program also included a system of polite interaction rules between students and teacher, a chance for students to make up a mistake before losing a privilege (overcorrection), parent feedback on contract progress, and a progress display of the contract goals. Progress as measured by students' perceptions was a 67 percent reduction in problems and by teacher perceptions a 90 percent reduction of classroom problems.

What Makes Behavioral Contracts Effective?

There are a number of characteristics of behavioral contracts which must be present in order for them to be effective. These are:

- *Agreeing:* This means that both parties, the teacher (or parent) and the child, have negotiated what consequence will be given for what type of behavior. Negotiation suggests

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an exchange of proposals and counter-proposals between parties. The negotiation aspect of a contract is one of its major advantages, particularly in working with adolescents who want to be adult-like and independent. Negotiations should not be one-sided in the sense that one person dictates terms to the other person.

- *Formal Exchange:* This part of the definition indicates that a behavior will be produced, and then a reinforcer or reward will be given. The contracting equation is Behavior = Reward. Relaxing the behavior requirements in the middle of a contract is generally a mistake, and not giving the agreed upon reward after the behavior has been produced is always a mistake. Also, it is always a mistake to give the reward before the behavior is produced.

- *Reward or Reinforcement:* The positive consequence is frequently the motivating component of a contract. Without some type of reward or reinforcement, most children will not complete the requirements of a contract. However, other aspects of consequences can also be important with contracts. For example, penalty clauses can be important if a behavior is not produced within a certain time frame. In addition, bonus rewards can enhance motivation if a behavior is exceptionally well done or produced before a deadline.

- *Behavior:* Negotiating and defining the behavioral expectations of a contract can be one of its most important functions. The behavior should be defined so that it is objective (i.e., can be measured easily or seen). The behavioral definition should also include the standard that is expected (e.g., a B grade or better) and the time deadlines (e.g., by the end of next Friday). A behavior that is objectively defined up to a standard with time deadlines are essential components of a contract.

In addition to these characteristics, there are several approaches that can enhance the effectiveness of contracting with unmotivated students. These approaches generally involve combining contracting with other techniques.

- *Goal Setting:* Contracting can be combined with students setting their own academic goals. If this procedure is used, a bonus for reaching the goal sooner and a penalty clause for not reaching the goal on time can be added.

- *Public Posting:* This procedure has already been mentioned in combination with written contracts. The procedure should include contracting for improvements and displaying the contracts on a public bulletin board. Written contracts that are publicly posted can be enhanced by spot lighting a "Contract of the Week," having students design and do the artwork on their individual contracts, or having a displayed pillar of squares with each square that a student colors signifying one step closer to his/her contract goal.

- *Group Contingencies:* A contract can be designed for a total classroom or teams instead of an individual student. Caution should be taken in implementing a group contract to make sure that each child is capable of contributing to the contract goal. An example of a group contingency might be for the teachers to formulate class teams which race toward a city on a United States map as a form of publicly posted group contingency. In this case it might be that the first team to go from Los Angeles to New York wins. Each completed student assignment contributes so many miles (i.e., a 100% = 100 miles; 75% = 75 miles). Speeding tickets can be given for tardies or not turning in homework. Bonuses can be given on random days for the most mileage earned.

- *Homenotes:* Contracts can be included in a homenote program. For example, when a student accumulates four weeks worth of perfect homenotes (all four weeks do not have to be in a row), he/she receives an agreed upon reward or earns a mystery motivator.

Steps For Implementing Behavioral Contracting

Step 1: Defining the contracted behavior(s) is the first step in implementing a contract. The behavior must be observable and measurable—in other words, things that a teacher can actually measure or see. Poor contract behaviors include "improving classroom responsibility" or "showing more respect for others." Better alternatives are "hand in work by the end of the period without being asked" or "follow the classroom rules regarding classmates– talk in a calm voice, do not argue, do not fight, share toys." These are behaviors that can actually be seen and measured.

It may be necessary to break a behavior into smaller steps for a contract, particularly if a student is academically unmotivated. For example, instead of contracting for 30 arithmetic problems, a teacher may ask for 10 the first week, then 20 the second week, and finally 30 the third week. It is important to define and break up a behavior so the student is initially successful in earning the contract reward. Nothing kills the effectiveness of a contract faster for an unmotivated student than experiencing another academic failure with no reward.

Step 2: Selecting contract reinforcers is the next step in implementing a contract. It is important to remember that a teacher may list several items that a child might like. However, the child should participate in selecting reinforcers in the negotiation phase of setting up a contract. The basic rule in selecting contract reinforcers is that reinforcers should not take a lot of time to deliver, nor should they be expensive. It is better to use existing classroom items such as extra free time, getting to line up first for a week, getting to wear a hat in the classroom, a reserved parking space for older students, getting to sit next to a friend, or being the teacher's classroom aide. Treats, small toys, or classroom supplies (pencils, erasers, notebooks, etc.) may also be provided. One high school teacher persuaded community businesses to donate reinforcers such as gift certificates for five gallons of gasoline, free pizzas and movie tickets. However, many of these items are large and comparitively expensive and should be used sparingly or as bonuses for contracts.

Step 3: Defining the contract criterion is important and is often poorly done in contracts. The contract criterion is actually the definition of what is required before an exchange of behavior for reinforcement is given. Generally, contract criteria include the amount of behavior, amount of reinforcer, and time limits. There are two basic contract criteria. These are consecutive criteria and cumulative criteria.

The poorest type of contrac* criterion is a consecutive criterion in which the amount of behavior is required in a consecutive chain or row. For example, the student may be told he will receive the contract reward if he gets a B or better on his arithmetic assignments for ten straight days. In this case, the student may get nine days of straight B's and get a C on the tenth, thus not receiving the reward. Consecutive requirements are harsh and punishing for many unmotivated students.

A better type of contract criterion is a cumulative criterion in which the amount of behavior adds up with each success but does not count for failures. For example, the student may receive the contract reward when he gets ten B's or better on his arithmetic assignment. In this example, the student could have some days in which performance drops below a B; however, after he gets ten B's (with several lower grades in-between) he receives the reward (e.g. Mon-B, Tue-A; Wed-C; Thur-B; Fri-B; Mon-C; Tue-B; Wed-A; Thur-B; Fri-B; Mon-A; Tue-B = Gets Contract Reward). Cumulative criteria are better because they allow the student some days in which he/she does not meet the criterion.

Time limits are explicit in most contracts. Many contracts are defined so that they pay off at the end of the week or every other week. However, contracts can also be designed to pay off each day. Contracts that go over two weeks are generally poor contracts because students cannot wait that long. A good approach is to pay off, by at least the end of the week for students who have a cumulative criterion. For example, on Fridays (Pay Day), students with five or more completed B homework assignments can watch a movie video. Students who do not have the five, must work on their assignments during the movie, but they can save the assignment from this week to count towards next week's contract.

Step 4: For unmotivated students, it is often essential to include a bonus clause and a penalty clause. A bonus clause can be an extra incentive if a student does a particularly good job or beats a timeline. This can be important when a student takes an exceptionally long time to reach the contract cumulative criterion. For example, a student will receive the contract reward when she is on time to class ten times (cumulative). A bonus will be given if the student is on time 10 times in 10 straight days or no tardies (consecutive). Often, a bonus pay off can be based on a combination of a cumulative and consecutive criteria. The basic function of a bonus is to get a student to complete a criterion in the least amount of time.

Penalty clauses are also needed with some unmotivated students. It is best to initially design an all positive contract. However, if the contract rewards are valued and the pay off time is short, and the contract still does not work, then a penalty is probably needed. It is best to design the penalty with broad time limits. For example, the student needs 15 homework assignments of B or better to receive the contract reward for November (based on a daily homework assignments for a 20 day period). However, if the number is less than 10 for the month of November, the student loses television privileges for a week. A penalty clause is needed to give added incentive when all else fails.

Step 5: The negotiation phase of contracting can be critical in securing the active participation of an unmotivated student. Negotiation allows the student to have some ownership of the contract and its terms. In addition, negotiation increases the basic communication between teacher and student and can give the teacher insights into the student's motivation problems that were unknown in the past. For instance, a student may disclose a basic skill deficiency that he was embarrassed to previously admit.

The basic substeps of negotiation are:

a) Have a specific set of contract behaviors, rewards, and criteria to discuss with the student.

b) Indicate to the student why a contract is necessary and how you want it tohelp with the student's difficulty.

c) Indicate that several components of the contract are negotiable such as rewards, behaviors, and criterion. However, a contract is needed and its implementation is not negotiable.

d) Tell the student what you want for the contract behaviors, suggest reinforcers, and indicate criterion. Ask the student for input.

e) Be careful at this stage of negotiation. Often, students set unrealistically high standards for themselves. Tell the student you want to start slow and then expand.

f) Indicate to the student that you genuinely want the contract to work. However, if things do not improve, a penalty clause may be needed. The penalty clause can be negotiated with the student within certain limits.

g) Tell the student that the contract is open to renegotiation at any time. Give the sense that you value the student's input and will renegotiate difficult behaviors, reinforcers, and criterion.

Never threaten the negative terms of a contract. Remember, a unilateral contract is not a contract by definition because all parties have not agreed to the terms.

Step 6: Put the terms of the contract in writing. Some individuals feel that actually writing the contract is superfluous, however, a written document serves several important functions. First, by writing a contract which includes a description of the behaviors, timelines, criterion, reinforcers, penalty clauses, and bonus clauses, later misunderstanding can be avoided. Writing and signing a contract clears up misunderstandings and indicates agreement with the terms at the time that all parties signed the contract. Second, a good written contract should have a section which includes data on the student's progress. If the contract has a data section, it functions as a self-recording instrument which further enhances the contract's effectiveness. Third, written contracts should be displayed. Hanging contracts on walls, taping them on desks, putting them on bulletin boards, or having a special section of the classroom to display contracts improves the effectiveness of the contract through public posting. Students are generally interested in the terms, rewards, and progress made on their contracts.

Several written contract forms and examples are provided in the Appendix of this manual.

Trouble Shooting Contracts

No technique will work in all situations with an unmotivated student. Although contracts have numerous advantages and work well with older students, there can be problems with their use.

Problem: The student starts out working hard and then loses motivation.

Solution: The reward pay off may be too distant in the future. This is one of the most frequent problems with contracts. Try and cut the time period before the reward can be earned in half.

Problem: The student appears confused and never really gets started.

Solution: This may be a problem of not defining the required behaviors carefully enough or requiring too much of the target behavior initially. Be specific in defining the behavior. Discuss it thoroughly with the student. Make sure he/she understands the requirement. If necessary, model and role play the behaviors. If the child understands, then the requirement may be too big. Try reducing the behavior requirement for one week (i.e., half the problems, a C instead of a B, 5 pages instead of 10). After at least one week where the child has received a contract reward, gradually begin to increase the contract requirement.

Problem: After negotiations, checking the time period for delivery of the reward, checking the specificity of the behaviors, and at least one week of earning the contract, the student still seems unmotivated and disinterested. This is particularly a problem if the student is passively unmotivated.

Solution: A penalty clause may be necessary to get the student to actively participate. This may involve soliciting the cooperation of a parent so that the student is penalized at home (i.e. going to bed early or losing television privileges). If the parent cannot cooperate, a student may have to receive a penalty at school, such as losing recess or free time.

Problem: The student excitedly starts out with the contract but appears frustrated and anxious before finishing.

Solution: First, check the criterion. Frustration can result from too difficult an expectation. Also, check the type of criterion. Consecutive requirements cause frustration and should be changed to a cumulative criterion.

Problem: The student is openly defiant and will not participate in the contract.

Solution: Indicate to the student that you want to negotiate the terms of the contract and you value his input. It may help a great deal to have a person who is important to the student participate in the negotiations, particularly if a penalty clause is set. People you may want to invite are parents, a coach, another favored teacher, counselor or parole officer. Make sure that the invited person supports the idea of a contract and will be helping with the negotiation of the terms of the contract.

Problem: The parents offer extremely large rewards with too long a time period before they are delivered. It is not uncommon for parents to promise bicycles, four wheelers, trips, remote control vehicles and money to a student for greatly improve academic progress (e.g., bring your D's up to A's and B's in one semester).

Solution: Parents can be a real asset in helping to design a contract. Talk to the parents and express your concern over the promised big reinforcer. Work out a list of smaller rewards with a much shorter delay period with them and suggest using the large reward as an additional bonus.

Cautions

Caution is needed regarding the use of contracts in that teachers and parents must realize that most contracts are behavior management systems with a delayed reward payoff system. The word delayed is stressed because most contracts provide rewards on a weekly or every other weekly schedule. When working with unmotivated students, delay frequently destroys initial steps that are needed to get a student started. Contracts can be most useful when: (1) They are used as a way of fading out more frequent rewards, or after a student has started to work appropriately, or (2) They are used with older or more motivated students. Contracts with long delays can be a mistake for younger children or highly unmotivated students. In these cases, it is better to start with an hourly, twice daily, or daily reward system.

Teachers must also be aware that parents and other professionals working with a student may have objections to the use of contracting. The teacher must be prepared to effectively counter these objections before proceeding with contracting as an intervention. There are several objections that are commonly voiced. The first objection is that contracts are not needed if students would just be responsible. It is easy to answer this objection. First, unmotivated or behaviorally acting out students are not responsible; thus, other techniques are needed to make certain they succeed. The other answer to this objection is that even responsible individuals may need contracts for important behaviors. We have already discussed the use of contracts in buying a car, marrying, and accepting a teaching position.

The second objection is that contracts act as an artificial crutch. Contracts should be designed to enhance initial motivation and should then be slowly faded out of use. However, it is better to use a tool such as a contract and make sure that a student makes academic progress rather than letting him fail.

The third objection is that contracts are complex and take too much time. A well designed contract is like a good investment. Most sound financial investments take initial start-up capital in order to return greater dividends later. Similarly, a well designed contract will initially take a little more time than simply doing nothing with the student. However, the dividends are much greater in improving the student's academic motivation, improved communication through negotiating the contract, and focusing teacher attention on student performance. In fact, contracts are one of the most efficient strategies a teacher can use with a student to improve academic motivation.

Case Study

Bubba is a 6th grade student with severe motivational and behavior problems. He has had particular problems in completing class assignments and has never turned in homework. He is defiant in class and often appears frustrated by academic tasks. Bubba's parents are interested, but his father works night shifts and his mother reports that she can do little with Bubba at home. His mother reports that, "Bubba just sits and watches television".

When the teacher interviewed Bubba in her office he reported that he would like to do better in class but has difficulty getting started. Bubba also reported that he feels stupid around other students, particularly when doing his arithmetic problems. Simple probes show that Bubba has several skill deficit areas in arithmetic, especially in multiplication facts. When asked what he likes, Bubba reports liking television, candy, money, and recess time.

The teacher decided to design a contract with Bubba in which he can be paid off each day with a simple in-class reinforcer if he has done his multiplication sheet for the day. There are several reinforcers written on slips of paper that are put in a grab bag and Bubba gets to randomly select one each day. A bonus is also given when Bubba scores 80 percent or better on three multiplication fact tests given at the end of each week (cumulative criterion). The bonus is a secret reinforcer placed in a mystery motivator envelope (an envelope that is sealed with the reinforcer written on a slip of paper). The mystery motivator is kept in the teacher's desk drawer and may include such items as a movie video the teacher rented, lunch at a fast food restaurant with Bubba's father, or a sleepover with a friend. If Bubba fails to complete his daily multiplication fact sheet, the teacher calls home and the television is locked up (using a small tool chest lock on the plug) for one day.

The contract was written and signed by Bubba and his parents. Bubba took an active role in negotiating the reinforcers and the amount of work to be done. He was not particularly happy about the penalty clause of losing television for not working, but he said he would go along with the "deal." As with all contracts, the teacher posted the contract on the bulletin board along with other children's contracts.

In the first four weeks of the contract Bubba has completed 80 percent of all assigned arithmetic sheets and has learned his times tables through the 8's. He received one bonus of a sleepover, and his parents have had to lock-up the television set only three times. (Note: When the target behavior is a

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"I've got an offer you can't refuse..."

______________________________'S CONTRACT
(name)

I AGREE TO: ____

____

____

IF I MEET THESE CONDITIONS BY ____________________, I EARN THE FOLLOWING
(date)

PRIVILEGE: ____

____

SIGNED: ______________________ WITNESS: ______________________

PARENT: ______________________ TODAY'S DATE: _________________

CONTRACT

TASK

Who: ____________________

What: ____________________

When: ____________________

How Well: ____________________

____

____

REWARD

Who: ____________________

What: ____________________

When: ____________________

How Much: ____________________

____

____

Sign Here: ____________________ Date: __________

Sign Here: ____________________ Date: __________

TASK RECORD

☆Contract

TARGET BEHAVIOR

WHO: ______________________________

WHAT: ______________________________

WHEN: ______________________________

HOW WELL: ______________________________

____

____

PRIVILEGE

WHO: ______________________________

WHAT: ______________________________

WHEN: ______________________________

HOW MUCH: ______________________________

____

____

☆AGREED: ______________________________ DATE: ____________________

☆AGREED: ______________________________ DATE: ____________________

Record

Days→														
Task Tally														

C O N T R A C T

EFFECTIVE DATES: FROM: ____________________ TO: ____________________

We, the undersigned individuals agree to the following contract conditions:

TARGET BEHAVIORS	PRIVILEGES
When: ____________________	Then: ____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
When: ____________________	Then: ____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
When: ____________________	Then: ____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

BONUS: ____

____

____

PENALTY: ____

____

SIGNED: ____________________ DATE: ____________________

SIGNED: ____________________ DATE: ____________________

SIGNED: ____________________ DATE: ____________________

SIGNED: ____________________ DATE: ____________________

This contract will be reviewed in two weeks.

Sugai, G., & Horner, R. Including students with severe behavior problems in general education settings: Assumptions, challenges, and solutions. In J. Marr, G. Sugai, & G. Tindal (Eds.). *The Oregon Conference Monograph 1994* (pp. 109 - 120). Eugene, OR: University of Oregon.

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Including Students with Severe Behavior Problems in General Education Settings: Assumptions, Challenges, and Solutions

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To date, we have made major efforts to separate students by diagnostic classification or disability type. However, if we are to meet the challenges of inclusive school reform, we need structures, procedures, systems, and personnel that are competent across these distinctions. In particular, our current educational practices do not meet the needs of students who display aggressive, acting-out, self-injurious, and/or anti-social behavior. As a result, these students are at extreme risk of exclusion from their homes or general education settings. If this situation is to change, we need structures, processes, administrators, teachers, and support staff who have the knowledge, skills, and experience to work with students with challenging behaviors.

In this paper we use the descriptor *severe behavioral challenges* rather than more traditional categorical labels (e.g., seriously emotionally disturbed, specific learning disabilities, mental retardation) because we believe this change in terminology and perspective is necessary to meet the changing demands confronting our schools and to respond to recent educational and behavioral technological advances. We target students with severe behavior challenges because they are the last to be included, first to be excluded, and the most difficult to provide effective behavioral support. In addition, current school reform efforts are focused on helping local schools meet the needs of all children in their catchment area. Finally, an increasing proportion of these students pose extreme challenges to teachers and administrators due to the severity of their problem behaviors. These students may be cognitively competent, or they may have very severe intellectual disabilities. They may carry a wide range of diagnoses, but they each present problem behaviors that exceed the capacity of conventional educational settings.

The purpose of this paper is to describe possible features of a system of effective support for students with severe behavior problems. To establish the context for this discussion, a statement of the problem and assumptions and needs are discussed. Our focus is on the development and study of structures and processes required to provide effective behavioral support to students with severe behavior challenges and their teachers and parents. We make statements about the critical features of a school-based system of assessment, instruction, intervention, and staff training. This system has the educational, behavioral, and organizational capacity and competence to meet the needs of *all* children with serious problem behaviors. In particular, this system provides conceptually sound and empirically validated effective behavioral support for students with severe behavior challenges that can be implemented in general education settings.

Problem and Need Statement

An examination of the provision of effective behavioral support to children and youth who display severe behavioral challenges reveals four problem areas: (a) poor school and community integration for children and youth with severe behavioral challenges,

(b) critical shortage of teachers with specialized skills, (c) increased concern over failures to meet the educational needs of students with serious behavior problems, and (d) increased difficulty to accommodate students with severe behavioral challenges within the context of the school reform movement.

Poor School and Community Integration for Students with Severe Behavioral Challenges

Data from the *Fourteenth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (1992) indicate that over 382,000 students between the ages of 6 and 21 were served as EBD (emotional and behavioral disordered). This number represents an increase of over 7,500 students from the previous year. Students labeled as EBD generally are placed in more restrictive settings than students with only specific learning disabilities, speech or language impairments, mental retardation, and hearing impairments (U. S. Department of Education, 1992). In addition, students with EBD have the highest drop out rate (39.1%) of any disability category.

Students with EBD face bleak futures that have serious implications for schools and communities (Knitzer, 1993; Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990). For example, the *Eleventh Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act* (1989) indicated that (a) there has been a 1.2% increase in students with EBD being served, (b) for the EBD category, the prevalence range across states was 0.04% to 2.46%, (c) students with EBD have the lowest full-time employment of all the major exceptionalities, (d) students with EBD have the lowest graduation rate (42% v. 59% for all conditions), (e) 2% of students with EBD find themselves in correctional facilities (v. 0.03% for all conditions), and (f) 19% of students with EBD receive their education outside regular school buildings (vs. 7% for all exceptionalities).

Recent reports indicate that if students are given the EBD designation, their secondary and post-secondary prognoses are considered quite poor. A national longitudinal study conducted by SRI International and contracted by the Office of Special Education Programs of the U. S. Department of Education indicates that secondary-age students with EBD "were absent from school an average of 18 days more than students with any other kind of disability" (p. 1). With respect to grades earned, the SRI study found that students with EBD tended to receive lower grades than their disabled peers. In fact, 44% received failing grades in one or more courses, and their grade point average was 1.7. Highlights from the SRI study (1990) indicate that, (a) whereas 75% of the general population graduated in 1986 and 1987, only 42% of students with EBD graduated. Of the school leavers, 4% left school because they exceeded the age limit, 50% dropped out of school (twice the general population dropout rate), and 5% were expelled; (b) "Among youth with emotional disturbance who were out of school up to 2 years, 35% had been arrested; of those who were still in school, 20% had been arrested" (p. 1); and (c) based on parent reports, students with EBD were generally employed at a rate (43%) similar to that of the general student population. However, two years after leaving school, 44% of youth with EBD were competitively employed, in contrast to a rate of 65% for all youth.

The SRI report is only the most recent documentation that students with problem behaviors are at significant risk for exclusion and isolation (Hill, Lakin, & Bruininks, 1984; Pagel & Whitling, 1978; Scheerenberger, 1990; White, Lakin, Bruininks, & Li, 1991). While evidence documents the value of inclusion (Brown & Lehr, 1989; Guess, Helmstetter, Turnbull, & Knowlton, 1987; Horner et al., 1990; Horner, Stoner, & Ferguson, 1988; Meyer, Peck, & Brown, 1991) and the dangers associated with exclusion and segregation (Sailor, 1992; Sailor et al., 1989; Slavin & Madden, 1989), students with EBD face a high risk of exclusion from family, friends, school, work and local communities. Teachers and adult service providers report that they are not able to support children and adults with more severe problem behaviors (Bannerman, 1987; Tausig, 1985). Students who engage in self-injury, aggression, acting-out, and property destruction are viewed as (a) dangerous to other students, (b) dangerous to themselves, (c) dangerous to teachers, (d) dangerous to their families or providers, and (e) so disruptive that other students are unable to achieve functional educational outcomes. The result is exclusion of the students with EBD, that is, exclusion from the classroom, work place, home, and community (Borthwick-Duffy, Eyman, & White, 1987; Patterson, Reid, & Dishon, 1992). It is no surprise that the single most common technical assistance request from teachers is for help in "managing problem behaviors" (Horner, Diemer & Brazeau, 1992; Reichle, 1990).

These data suggest that students with EBD face severe challenges in their attempts to achieve success in mainstream educational and community settings. If teachers are to have any hope of redirecting these students away from segregated education placements, early school leaving, unemployment, and antisocial behavior, they must be given the most effective techniques available to educate these students. These include strategies that enable them to (a) work collaboratively with parents, mainstream teachers, and building administrators; (b) teach students useful and effective social skills; and (c) achieve inclusive placements. Interestingly, effective strategies to accomplish these outcomes are available; the challenge is making these strategies available in regular schools (Peacock Hill Working Group, 1991).

Critical Shortage of Special Education Teachers with Specialized Skills

The need to provide teachers and systems with effective behavioral support in today's schools is magnified by the acute teacher shortage problem, particularly teachers competent at educating students with severe behavioral challenges. For example, at the national level, over 4,500 special education teachers are needed, second only to the number of teachers needed in the area of specific learning disabilities (over 6,500) (U. S. Department of Education, 1992). The high demand for technically trained teachers and the short supply of effective program delivery systems have been well documented (Grosenick, George, & George, 1988; Grosenick & Huntze, 1983, 1980a & b; Kauffman, 1993a; Schofer & Duncan, 1982).

The shortage of highly trained teachers is particularly severe at the regional and state level. Recent CSPD data from the Oregon Department of Education (Almond, 1991) indicate an annual shortage of 137 special education teachers, of which 24 teachers are needed to work in programs serving high functioning students with EBD and an additional 22 teachers needed for cognitively low functioning students with serious behavioral challenges.

Oregon's need for qualified educators in the EBD area lies not only in a serious shortage of new teachers, but in the retraining of existing teachers. Oregon employs over 100 teachers with "emergency" special education certifications who work with "low incidence and severe disabilities" (Oregon Cooperative Personnel Planning Council, 1990-91). In addition, when Horner, Diemer, and Brazeau (1992) surveyed all teachers of students with severe disabilities, they found that the teachers reported their training to be weakest in the area of severe problem behavior, and that their highest technical assistance/training need was in the area of EBD. These data indicate that Oregon not only needs to be doing more in the preparation of *new* teachers with skills in the EBD area, but we need to be doing more to upgrade the skills of existing teachers.

The need for teachers (both nationally and locally) who are trained to educate students with severe behavioral challenges is acute at present and projected to become more serious. Current trends indicate a steady increase in the number of students who present severe behavioral challenges and receive special education services. Nationally, a 37% increase (i.e., 91,382) in students with EBD has been observed between 1976 to 1984. In Oregon (1986-87), 2146 students with EBD were served, representing about a 2.5% increase from 1986-87 and a 2.4% increase from 1976-77 (U. S. Department of Education, 1989). These trends are expected to continue at least through the next 10 years, placing even greater demands on schools to provide appropriate educational experiences for students with EBD (U. S. Department of Education, 1992).

Increased Concern over Failures to Meet the Educational and Behavioral Support Needs of Students with Severe Behavioral Challenges

The challenges of educating students with severe behavioral problems have emerged as the number one priority among school professionals in both special and regular education. The National Coalition of Mental Health and Special Education (Forness, 1989) has indicated that students with behavior disorders are some of the most under-served school-age populations and has called for major reform in education and mental health services. In addition, when special educators are asked to describe the adequacy of their basic endorsement training, they report high concern over the increasing classroom and student failures because they are inadequately prepared for the demands of their jobs. In a one-year follow-up study, most of 117 special education teachers who graduated from an Oregon state training facility (1986-1987 graduation) with a Oregon Basic Handicapped Learner Endorsement (Zanville, 1989) indicated that their training on essential skills (e.g., managing classroom time effectively, working effectively with teachers, handling discipline and behavior management problems in the classroom) was "fair" to "poor." An increasing concern clearly exists to improve the quality of basic training experiences and to provide opportunities for advanced training to meet the educational and behavioral needs of students with severe behavioral challenges.

Locally, the Oregon Department of Education, Office of Special Student Services, has designated the education of students with EBD and students who are high risk for school failure as one of its top five priorities over the next five years (Brazeau, 1992, 1989). As part of this commitment, the Office of Special Student Services conducted 12 one-week institutes on state-of-the-art strategies for educating students with EBD (Neill & Sugai, 1990). Over 300 special and regular educators, administrators, school psychologists, and parents participated, representing over 50 school districts. Participant evaluations indicated a critical need for such training and a significant shortage of trained personnel (Brush, 1990). In the fall of 1991, another round of inservice training workshops were presented (Perry, 1991). The interest was so great that a waiting list had to be created, and planning for additional workshops was conducted. At the Oregon Department of Education Conference on Strategies for Including Students (Anderson, November 1993), the challenge of providing effective behavioral support for students with severe behavioral challenges was one of the biggest concerns expressed by participants. The need to improve the services for students with severe behavioral challenges in regular classroom and building contexts is being voiced loudly and clearly in the state of Oregon.

Increased Difficulty to Accommodate Students with Severe Behavioral Challenges within the Context of the School Reform Movement

The goals and activities associated with current school reform movements pose significant challenges for how schools will educate students with severe behavioral problems in the 21st century. Although their effectiveness has been the focus of much debate (e.g., Kauffman, 1993b; Knitzer, 1993, Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990), special education programs in our public school buildings have had a major impact on how children and youth who display academic and social behavior problems are perceived and served. As a result, how regular and special educators work with one another and how students with serious behavioral challenges are educated have been influenced significantly. However, these relationships and practices will no longer be sufficient to meet the new demands associated with trends in how tomorrow's schools will be characterized and operated. Objectives set by the U. S. Department of Education (e.g., National Education Goals – America 2000), goals being developed at the state level (e.g., Oregon Educational Act for the 21st Century – HB3565), recommendations associated with the regular education initiative (e.g., Will, 1986), and full inclusion movements pose potentially serious challenges for educators who work with students with serious behavioral challenges. These movements stress high academic literacy, high graduation expectations, and alternative remedial programming. For special education, the implications are increased inclusion of students with disabilities in regular education settings, decreased provision of direct special education services in segregated settings, and increased academic and social behavior programming by regular education staff.

While these are admirable goals, students with serious behavioral challenges are clearly at greater risk in regular education settings than students with academic deficiencies or physical disabilities (e.g., Kauffman, 1993a; Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990). For example, educators will need to ask how they will respond when a student with serious emotional and behavioral challenges (a) does not start school each day ready to learn; (b) has reduced probabilities of graduating from high school; (c) fails to demonstrate competency in challenging subject matter by grades 4, 8, and 12; (d) is not likely to be first in the world in science and mathematics; and (e) does not leave school able to compete successfully in the global economy.

These questions have to be addressed within a climate in which (a) teachers and administrators report being less well prepared to respond effectively to students with serious behavioral challenges (Zanville, 1992), (b) the general public is less willing to serve students who are perceived as being "mentally handicapped" (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1992), (c) lack of discipline in the schools is rated by Americans as one of the three biggest problems faced by public schools (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1992), and (d) the public is clearly dissatisfied with the progress that government officials have made toward achieving former-President Bush's education goals for the year 2000 (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1992).

To further confound the problem, educators will be required to achieve school reform goals within the context of major societal shifts. More students in tomorrow's regular education settings will be culturally diverse, have English as a second language, be less prepared when they enter school, have a greater range of learning and behavioral challenges, and be more different than similar from their peers (Knitzer, 1993, Knitzer, Steinberg, &. Fleisch, 1990; Stevens & Price, 1992). The old practice of identifying different "types" of students and creating different "places" for them to be educated is no longer viable. All students will be in the regular school, regular class, regular community (for at least some of their schooling).

It is becoming increasingly clear that these conditions will make it more difficult to serve children and youth with severe behavioral challenges in the most appropriate and least restrictive manner possible. Traditional special education training models will no longer be sufficient, and training must respond to trends and practices associated with current reform movements. In addition, these efforts must utilize what research has shown to work.

Effective Behavioral Support

Given these circumstances and challenges associated with educating students with severe behavioral challenges, systems of effective behavioral support must be developed that can (a) accommodate the increasing challenges being presented by students with severe behavioral problems in today's schools; (b) proactively respond to the school reform movement (e.g., inclusion, site-based management, supported education); (c) support educators who must spend more time in teams, rely more on the expertise and support of building-based resources, implement more specialized educational strategies, increase their repertoire of teaching and management skills, and deliver more with less; and (d) provide effective behavioral support that requires more than many individual teachers can deliver, involves active administrator support, includes both proactive and responsive strategies, is fundamentally the same for all students regardless of severity or type of disability, and is supported by a

Critical Shortage of Special Education Teachers with Specialized Skills

The need to provide teachers and systems with effective behavioral support in today's schools is magnified by the acute teacher shortage problem, particularly teachers competent at educating students with severe behavioral challenges. For example, at the national level, over 4,500 special education teachers are needed, second only to the number of teachers needed in the area of specific learning disabilities (over 6,500) (U. S. Department of Education, 1992). The high demand for technically trained teachers and the short supply of effective program delivery systems have been well documented (Grosenick, George, & George, 1988; Grosenick & Huntze, 1983, 1980a & b; Kauffman, 1993a; Schofer & Duncan, 1982).

The shortage of highly trained teachers is particularly severe at the regional and state level. Recent CSPD data from the Oregon Department of Education (Almond, 1991) indicate an annual shortage of 137 special education teachers, of which 24 teachers are needed to work in programs serving high functioning students with EBD and an additional 22 teachers needed for cognitively low functioning students with serious behavioral challenges.

Oregon's need for qualified educators in the EBD area lies not only in a serious shortage of new teachers, but in the retraining of existing teachers. Oregon employs over 100 teachers with "emergency" special education certifications who work with "low incidence and severe disabilities" (Oregon Cooperative Personnel Planning Council, 1990-91). In addition, when Horner, Diemer, and Brazeau (1992) surveyed all teachers of students with severe disabilities, they found that the teachers reported their training to be weakest in the area of severe problem behavior, and that their highest technical assistance/training need was in the area of EBD. These data indicate that Oregon not only needs to be doing more in the preparation of *new* teachers with skills in the EBD area, but we need to be doing more to upgrade the skills of existing teachers.

The need for teachers (both nationally and locally) who are trained to educate students with severe behavioral challenges is acute at present and projected to become more serious. Current trends indicate a steady increase in the number of students who present severe behavioral challenges and receive special education services. Nationally, a 37% increase (i.e., 91,382) in students with EBD has been observed between 1976 to 1984. In Oregon (1986-87), 2146 students with EBD were served, representing about a 2.5% increase from 1986-87 and a 2.4% increase from 1976-77 (U.S. Department of Education, 1989). These trends are expected to continue at least through the next 10 years, placing even greater demands on schools to provide appropriate educational experiences for students with EBD (U. S. Department of Education, 1992).

Increased Concern over Failures to Meet the Educational and Behavioral Support Needs of Students with Severe Behavioral Challenges

The challenges of educating students with severe behavioral problems have emerged as the number one priority among school professionals in both special and regular education. The National Coalition of Mental Health and Special Education (Forness, 1989) has indicated that students with behavior disorders are some of the most under-served school-age populations and has called for major reform in education and mental health services. In addition, when special educators are asked to describe the adequacy of their basic endorsement training, they report high concern over the increasing classroom and student failures because they are inadequately prepared for the demands of their jobs. In a one-year follow-up study, most of 117 special education teachers who graduated from an Oregon state training facility (1986-1987 graduation) with a Oregon Basic Handicapped Learner Endorsement (Zanville, 1989) indicated that their training on essential skills (e.g., managing classroom time effectively, working effectively with teachers, handling discipline and behavior management problems in the classroom) was "fair" to "poor." An increasing concern clearly exists to improve the quality of basic training experiences and to provide opportunities for advanced training to meet the educational and behavioral needs of students with severe behavioral challenges.

Locally, the Oregon Department of Education, Office of Special Student Services, has designated the education of students with EBD and students who are high risk for school failure as one of its top five priorities over the next five years (Brazeau, 1992, 1989). As part of this commitment, the Office of Special Student Services conducted 12 one-week institutes on state-of-the-art strategies for educating students with EBD (Neill & Sugai, 1990). Over 300 special and regular educators, administrators, school psychologists, and parents participated, representing over 50 school districts. Participant evaluations indicated a critical need for such training and a significant shortage of trained personnel (Brush, 1990). In the fall of 1991, another round of inservice training workshops were presented (Perry, 1991). The interest was so great that a waiting list had to be created, and planning for additional workshops was conducted. At the Oregon Department of Education Conference on Strategies for Including Students (Anderson, November 1993), the challenge of providing effective behavioral support for students with severe behavioral challenges was one of the biggest concerns expressed by participants. The need to improve the services for students with severe behavioral challenges in regular classroom and building contexts is being voiced loudly and clearly in the state of Oregon.

Increased Difficulty to Accommodate Students with Severe Behavioral Challenges within the Context of the School Reform Movement

The goals and activities associated with current school reform movements pose significant challenges for how schools will educate students with severe behavioral problems in the 21st century. Although their effectiveness has been the focus of much debate (e.g., Kauffman, 1993b; Knitzer, 1993, Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990), special education programs in our public school buildings have had a major impact on how children and youth who display academic and social behavior problems are perceived and served. As a result, how regular and special educators work with one another and how students with serious behavioral challenges are educated have been influenced significantly. However, these relationships and practices will no longer be sufficient to meet the new demands associated with trends in how tomorrow's schools will be characterized and operated. Objectives set by the U. S. Department of Education (e.g., National Education Goals – America 2000), goals being developed at the state level (e.g., Oregon Educational Act for the 21st Century – HB3565), recommendations associated with the regular education initiative (e.g., Will, 1986), and full inclusion movements pose potentially serious challenges for educators who work with students with serious behavioral challenges. These movements stress high academic literacy, high graduation expectations, and alternative remedial programming. For special education, the implications are increased inclusion of students with disabilities in regular education settings, decreased provision of direct special education services in segregated settings, and increased academic and social behavior programming by regular education staff.

While these are admirable goals, students with serious behavioral challenges are clearly at greater risk in regular education settings than students with academic deficiencies or physical disabilities (e.g., Kauffman, 1993a; Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990). For example, educators will need to ask how they will respond when a student with serious emotional and behavioral challenges (a) does not start school each day ready to learn; (b) has reduced probabilities of graduating from high school; (c) fails to demonstrate competency in challenging subject matter by grades 4, 8, and 12; (d) is not likely to be first in the world in science and mathematics; and (e) does not leave school able to compete successfully in the global economy.

These questions have to be addressed within a climate in which (a) teachers and administrators report being less well prepared to respond effectively to students with serious behavioral challenges (Zanville, 1992), (b) the general public is less willing to serve students who are perceived as being "mentally handicapped" (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1992), (c) lack of discipline in the schools is rated by Americans as one of the three biggest problems faced by public schools (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1992), and (d) the public is clearly dissatisfied with the progress that government officials have made toward achieving former-President Bush's education goals for the year 2000 (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1992).

To further confound the problem, educators will be required to achieve school reform goals within the context of major societal shifts. More students in tomorrow's regular education settings will be culturally diverse, have English as a second language, be less prepared when they enter school, have a greater range of learning and behavioral challenges, and be more different than similar from their peers (Knitzer, 1993, Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990; Stevens & Price, 1992). The old practice of identifying different "types" of students and creating different "places" for them to be educated is no longer viable. All students will be in the regular school, regular class, regular community (for at least some of their schooling).

It is becoming increasingly clear that these conditions will make it more difficult to serve children and youth with severe behavioral challenges in the most appropriate and least restrictive manner possible. Traditional special education training models will no longer be sufficient, and training must respond to trends and practices associated with current reform movements. In addition, these efforts must utilize what research has shown to work.

Effective Behavioral Support

Given these circumstances and challenges associated with educating students with severe behavioral challenges, systems of effective behavioral support must be developed that can (a) accommodate the increasing challenges being presented by students with severe behavioral problems in today's schools; (b) proactively respond to the school reform movement (e.g., inclusion, site-based management, supported education); (c) support educators who must spend more time in teams, rely more on the expertise and support of building-based resources, implement more specialized educational strategies, increase their repertoire of teaching and management skills, and deliver more with less; and (d) provide effective behavioral support that requires more than many individual teachers can deliver, involves active administrator support, includes both proactive and responsive strategies, is fundamentally the same for all students regardless of severity or type of disability, and is supported by a systems approach of behavior management (i.e. school-wide, classroom, and individual).

These systems must address all students, but particularly those students who typically are the first to be identified, last to be included in regular education programming and settings, the first to be excluded, and most challenging to teach. Students with severe behavioral challenges are the least tolerated by both regular and special education teachers. Recent data from the U. S. Department of Education (1992) suggests that students with EBD are more likely to be educated for longer periods of time in settings outside the general education setting than any other special education student with a disability. Educators are deeply concerned about the challenges associated with teaching these students. For example, recent national conference sponsored by the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders (October, 1993) was held in St. Louis, Missouri and focused on problems and strategies associated with educating students with EBD in inclusive environments. Based on high participation, attendance, interest, and concern, the conference was an overwhelming success, and plans to replicate the conference in other states are being pursued.

The effective behavioral support solution must emphasize a cross-categorical approach. Although labels and classifications arguably serve a necessary role in eligibility determination and program administration, they serve little function in providing appropriate educational programming for students with disabilities (Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, 1989; Walker & Fabre, 1987). We believe that the essential features of a technology and delivery system of effective behavioral support are fundamentally the same for students with EBD, specific learning disabilities, developmental disabilities, etc. The severe behavioral challenges faced by teachers, professional organizations, parents, administrators, and students across the country at multiple levels in the school building (i.e., school-wide, classroom, teacher, student) must be faced directly and efficiently.

The effective behavioral support solution must focus on systems level assessment, implementation, and evaluation. When class size exceeds 30, when the variability of academic and social student competence increases, and when student behavioral problems increase in complexity and intensity, it is clear that individual teachers cannot effectively and efficiently meet the needs of students with severe behavioral challenges in their classrooms. Solutions of effective behavioral support must identify, examine, and accommodate the necessary and influential features of school-wide, classroom, and individual teacher practices. Our research (e.g., Kameenui, Sugai, & Colvin, 1990; Colvin, Kameenui, & Sugai, in press; Horner, Diemer, & Brazeau, 1992; Horner, Sprague, & Flannery, 1993; O'Neill, Williams, Sprague, Horner, & Albin, 1993) and the requests being made by teachers in the schools clearly support the development and implementation of local, teacher-based teams and positive behavioral support systems.

The inclusion movement and its accompanying debates are at their peak and are of academic interest... but what we need is classroom-, teacher-, and student-based research that directly addresses the question and extent to which inclusion is possible for students with severe behavioral challenges and how it can be operationalized across the extreme programmatic variations found in public school classrooms. In their executive summary of a national forum on inclusion, the National Education Association (1992) recommended that in order "to create and maintain high quality outcomes, the school integration effort must be fully financed, piloted, and evaluated on a controlled basis before system wide, statewide, or national implementation" (p. 77). Systems of effective behavioral support hold potentially high national significance in these times of economic shortfalls, school reform, and changing social and political mores.

Substantive Content of Effective Behavioral Support

Effective behavior support for students with severe behavioral challenges must be designed to (a) provide educational strategies to students in their current and future placement and (b) prevent behavior problems that result in decisions for more restrictive placements. With this focus, an emphasis must be placed on positive, effective strategies that can be implemented in mainstream or general education settings at the classroom and building levels. Seven groups have significant responsibilities in systems of effective behavioral support: (a) general education teachers, (b) special education teachers, (c) paraprofessionals (e.g., teaching assistants), (d) related services professionals (e.g., school counselors and psychologists), (e) school administrators, (f) teachers in training (including advanced graduate students), and (g) parents of students with severe behavioral challenges.

Team-Based Approach to Effective Behavioral Support and Staff Development

Because of these multiple participants, we believe that teacher-based teams approach must be taken. We propose Behavior Support Teams (BST) that provide on-going training and support to teachers who experience students with severe behavioral challenges. These teams should be given training and resources to engage in three main functions: (a) assessment, development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of school-wide, classroom, and individual behavior management systems; (b) consultation with individual teachers or teams of teachers on specific students who present severe behavioral challenges; and (c) development, implementation, and evaluation of school-wide, small-team, and individual-staff training activities.

This approach to team-based problem solving and training is based on a "teacher-of-teachers" model that has been studied and promoted by trainers and researchers at the University of Oregon (Kameenui, Sugai, & Colvin, 1990; Colvin, Kameenui, & Sugai, in press) and built from the works of Guskey (1986), Cuban (1990), Smylie (1988), and Sugai and Tindal (1993). The BST would consist of three to six teachers from a school building, and would develop, implement, maintain, and evaluation the structures and technology of effective behavior support for a building.

A team-based system, like the BST, must provide planned, on-going, and integrated opportunities for in-building staff development on the structures and technologies of effective behavior support. We acknowledge that this approach to staff training is labor and time extensive; however, we also acknowledge that changing teacher and system's behavior is a slow and gradual process. The provision of effective behavior support for students with severe challenging behavior is not easy. In Figure 1, we contrast traditional models of staff development with what we believe is possible with a BST system of effective behavior support.

Before the BST is actually constituted, a systematic assessment of the teaming activities that currently are in effect in the school building is recommended. It is not uncommon to see multiple team or meeting structures in operation, for example, (a) grade level, (b) student support, (c) multidisciplinary staffings, (d) curriculum committee, etc. The BST should be established within existing team-based structures to avoid operational redundancies and inefficient use of time, personnel, and material resources. However, modification of committee structures and operations may be recommended before BST are established.

BST members should be trained to incorporate staff development and training activities and opportunities in their regular operation activities. Staff development targets should be identified by answering the following series of questions: (a) What is needed? (b) What is "best practice?" (c) What is in place? and (d) What is a functional solution? The operation of this assessment model should consist of the following steps: (a) identify what problems, issues, and concerns exist; (b) identify what "best practice" solutions, structures, and/or routines exist; (c) identify what exists in the building; (d) evaluate what is in place against best practice solutions; (e) prioritize needs against resources, training needs, and programmatic structures; and (f) develop staff development plans that utilize applied problems as the training context.

The Strategies and Technologies of Effective Behavioral Support

Although we believe that the philosophy for providing effective behavior support is best described as behavioral in orientation, we prefer to emphasize what the research literature identifies as "best practices." Given this focus, the following descriptors characterize the strategies and technologies of effective behavior support: applied behavior analysis; direct instruction; formative, outcome-based assessment and evaluation; proactive prevention; supportive behavioral programming; school-wide general/regular education environments; and team-based staff development.

Effective behavioral support consists of structures and procedures that enable teachers to provide effective educational programming for all students who display severe behavioral challenges. The BST system should expose all staff to this content through planned staff development activities or indirectly through implementation of effective behavioral supports. The content of this effective behavioral support and examples of relevant content references (in parentheses) are given in Figure 2.

Although the primary function of the BST should be to provide assistance to individual teachers who have students with severe behavioral problems, the team also should provide effective school-wide behavioral support. BST training content includes the knowledge and skills listed above, and the team-specific procedural content shown in Figure 3.

This approach to effective behavioral support is intended to enhance the ability of teachers to meet the educational needs of students with severe behavioral problems through the development, implementation, and evaluation of a team-based approach to staff development and effective behavioral support. Unlike traditional discipline and "place-and-serve" service delivery models, knowledge and skills accent a prevention and proactive perspective. To summarize, effective behavioral support should (a) focus on all students, but especially those with severe behavior challenges; (b) attend to the needs of general and special educators; (c) emphasize systems level issues, problems, and strategies; (d) emphasize proactive, positive, and effective behavioral support systems and technologies; (e) include follow-up activities for teacher skills maintenance and generalization; (f) use a peer-based model of staff development; and (g) rely on research validated academic and social behavior instruction and management strategies.

We focus on students with severe behavior challenges; however, our ability to succeed with severe behavior problems is based on the functional stability of the practices that occur at the school-wide and classroom levels. In addition, the provision of effective

Problem Context

- Inadequate service delivery models for students with severe behavioral challenges.
- Inadequate school-based staff development models.
- Ineffective behavioral supports for students with severe behavioral challenges.

Traditional Model

- One shot inservice training
- External consultants
- Lack of follow-up & maintenance
- Generic staff development
- Reactive management

Effective Behavioral Support Model

+ Continuous inservice/preservice training
+ In-building teacher trainers
+ Follow-up & maintenance
+ School need-based staff development
+ Proactive management

Typical Outcomes

- Little sustained staff training effects
- Lack of transfer across contexts
- Lack of teacher ownership of problem student
- Decrease in personal teaching efficacy & certainty of practice
- Exclusion of students with severe behavioral problems
- Crisis management & negative school climate

Effective Behavioral Support Outcomes

+ Long term staff training retention & application
+ Skill maintenance & generalization
+ Long term change in teacher & student behavior
+ Increase in personal teaching efficacy & certainty of practice
+ Inclusion/supported education for students with severe behavior problems
+ Prevention management & positive school climate

Figure 1. Staff development comparison showing traditional model and outcomes versus effective behavioral support model and outcomes.

behavioral support for the student who displays severe behavioral problems may include the implementation of strategies and technologies that cross traditional classroom, teacher, and activity boundaries. Therefore, the operation of the BST should involve a team of educators who collectively and collaboratively build *and* implement effective behavioral support technologies.

The operation of the BST should consist of four relatively conventional steps: (a) request for assistance, (b) problem analysis and formulation, (c) intervention development, and (d) intervention implementation and evaluation. What makes the BST structure unique is the application of a comprehensive package of effective behavioral support technologies, for example, (a) functional assessment and analysis, (b) social skills and self-

Overview of Effective Behavioral Support Training Content

1. **General Knowledge** (Birnbrauer, 1990; Council for Exceptional Children, 1993; Edgar, 1990; Kauffman, 1976, 1980, 1992, 1993; Meyer, Peck, & Brown, 1991; Peacock Hill Working Group, 1991; Snell, 1993; Ysseldyke, Algozzine, & Thurlow, 1992)

    a. Issues and trends
        i. School reform
        ii. Regular education initiative
        iii. Inclusion, mainstreaming, and least restrictive environment
        iv. Staff development

    b. Learning and behavioral characteristics of students with severe behavioral challenges
        i. Cross- and non-categorical approaches

    c. Community/societal influences
        i. Delinquency
        ii. Substance use/abuse
        iii. Family functioning and structures
        iv. Poverty, homelessness, unemployment
        v. Multiculturalism

2. **Behavioral Support Team** (Colvin, Kameenui, & Sugai, in press; Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993a; Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993b; Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, 1990; Horner, et al., in progress; Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1991; O'Neill et al., 1993; Sugai & Horner, 1993; Sugai & Tindal, 1993)

    a. Roles and responsibilities
    b. Establishing, training, and operating
    c. Program management and evaluation

3. **Behavioral Assessment and Analysis** (Lalli, Browder, Mace, & Brown, 1993; O'Neill, et al., 1991; Reichle & Wacker, 1993; Repp & Singh, 1990; Sugai & Tindal, 1993; Walker et al., 1990; Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988)

    a. School-wide and classroom-wide screening for high risk students
    b. Functional and ecological assessment
    c. Functional analysis
    d. Data collection, manipulation, and display strategies

4. **School-wide Management and Prevention** (Colvin, Kameenui, & Sugai, in press; Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993a; Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993b)

    a. Prereferral intervention strategies
    b. Teacher assistance teams
    c. Mainstreaming strategies
    d. Proactive management strategies

5. **Academic and Social Behavior Prevention and Intervention Strategies** (Colvin & Sugai, 1988, 1990; Colvin, Sugai, & Patching, 1992; Dunlap, Kern-Dunlap, Clarke, & Robbins, 1991; Foster-Johnson, Ferro, & Dunlap, 1992; Horner et al., 1990; Reichle & Wacker, 1993; Ruhl & Berlinghoff, 1992; Steinberg & Knitzer, 1992; Sugai, 1992; Sugai & Tindal, 1993; Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988)

    a. Curriculum adaptation
    b. Effective instructional practices
    c. Positive behavior change tactics
    d. Maintenance and generalization strategies
    e. Self-management strategies

6. **Working with Others** (Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993a; Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1993b; Sugai & Tindal, 1993)

    a. Staff development strategies
    b. Management of roadblocks, resources, scheduling, etc.
    c. Conflict management and problem solving strategies

Figure 2. Overview of effective behavioral support training content.

Overview of Effective Behavioral Support Team-Specific Training Content

1. **Staff Development**
    - a. Assessment of building and teacher staff development needs
    - b. Development of training content or opportunities (formal and informal)
    - c. Implementation and evaluation of staff development
2. **Effective Behavioral Support**
    - a. Assessment of what is in place
    - b. Revision/development of structures, forms, and procedures
    - c. Implementation and evaluation of effective behavioral support
3. **Working as a Team**
    - a. Conflict resolution and problem solving
    - c. Building and using effective team meeting procedures and structures

Figure 3. Overview of effective behavioral support team-specific training content.

management interventions, (c) direct instruction, (d) positive (non-aversive) intervention technologies, and (e) individualized curriculum adaptation.

Concluding Comments

The purpose of this paper was to describe the features of a system of effective support for students with severe behavior problems. The need for structures and technologies of effective behavioral support is clearly indicated in the poor school and community integration of children and youth with severe behavioral challenges, critical shortage of teachers with specialized skills, increased concern over our failures to meet the educational needs of these students, and increased difficulty to accommodate students with severe behavioral challenges within the context of the school reform movement. To respond to this need, systems of effective behavioral support must be systematically developed, implemented, and studied. These systems must address the educational needs of all students, emphasize a cross-categorical approach, focus on a systems level approach, include a team-based problem solving model, and address the challenges presented by the inclusion movement.

Fortunately, our knowledge about best practices and research validated technologies is easily identified. Unfortunately, our knowledge about empirically supported systems of effective behavior support that work is untested at this time. We believe that the Behavior Support Team model holds great potential, but it remains to be studied systematically. A sample of the kinds of research questions that confront us include the following: What severe behavior problems are displayed by students who are described as severe behavioral challenges? What structures are in place for serving students with severe behavioral challenges? How are assessments conducted and by whom? How useful are resulting assessment data? How are interventions developed and implemented and by whom? What features do these interventions have? How effective and educationally valid are these interventions? How is staff development conducted and on what topics? How effective have these previous staff development activities been? What changes in student behavior occur when effective behavioral support strategies are provided? What changes in teacher behavior occur when effective behavioral support strategies are provided? What BST practices and structures are effective in assisting/teaching teachers and improving student behavior? What changes in placement/setting occur when BST structures and effective behavior support interventions are employed?

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Can the Way in Which the Teacher Communicates with Students Provide Support?

Yes. The way in which a teacher communicates with students can avoid or provoke conflict. Three forms of interaction that can prevent conflict from occurring and can help de-escalate it after it has occurred are the use of *I-messages,* Interpretive Feedback, and Quiet Messages.

What are *I-messages*?

I-messages enable teachers to communicate how they feel about a specific situation without placing the blame on the students. The intent of a simple, straightforward *I-message* is not to tell another person what do, but to communicate the impact of their actions.

You-messages do the opposite of the *I-messages. You-messages* assign blame to the person. This type of communication tends to order, preach and command students. In addition, this type of message may lead to ridicule and shame, provoking a student to become defensive, withdrawn, or escalate the intensity of the episode.

Typical "I-messages"	Typical "You-messages"
I feel angry when...	You stop that...
When students talk during class I...	You should know better.
What can I do about this?	You are bugging me.
It makes me feel good when...	You sit down.

What is interpretive feedback?

Interpretive feedback involves addressing what people are feeling as well as what they are saying. Use of interpretive feedback communicates that you care about the person and how they feel. Often acknowledging and talking about the feelings can avoid or defuse potentially troublesome situations.

In order to use interpretive feedback you must first determine how the person is feeling (e.g., angry, afraid, anxious, frustrated) based on their tone of voice, body language and the context of the situation. Next, acknowledge the feeling (e.g., "Mary, it seems that you are frustrated") and indicate that you understand why they feel that way (e.g., "Division problems can be very trying. Following all the steps and writing down the numbers in the right place can be a very hard thing to do"). If you are not sure how a person is feeling, venture a guess (e.g., "You seem angry") and ask questions to enable the student to process the situation (e.g., "Did something bad happen to you this morning").

What are *quiet-messages*?

Quiet-messages are ways to communicate with students without publicly singling them out for such things as mistakes, rule violations, and inappropriate behavior. No one likes to be singled out for such transgressions. For example, at a teachers' meeting your supervisor tells you to put your gum away or reprimands you for not completing a committee assignment. In the packed teachers' lounge your supervisor asks for an explanation of why you have been 10 minutes late for work every day for the past week. How would you feel? Would you feel embarrassed, angry, that a trust with your supervisor had been violated, that your supervisor was disrespectful and ignoring your need for privacy? How would you prefer that the supervisor communicate with you?

Students have similar reactions to being publicly singled out for transgressions. However, we often observe students being singled out. Blatant examples include writing students' names on the board for misbehaving and posting student grades along side their names. Less blatant examples include telling students, in front of the whole class, to get to work, to take the gum out of their mouths, or the consequences for not completing her homework. Some ways to avoid singling students for transgressions include:

- Take the student aside for a private conference;
- Use verbal reminders which do not single out a particular student such as, reminding the whole class about their homework, asking the student if she needs help rather then singling her out for being off task, reminding the whole class about gum chewing rule; and
- Use nonverbal cues such as pointing to your mouth to remind the student about gum chewing, point towards the student's work to remind her of what she is supposed to be doing, hand the student an object related to the activity you want them to do, use a questioning body posture and facial express to ask the student if she intends to do her homework.

Refining communication skills is complicated due to the patterns of interacting we have established over the years. Using new communication skills is further complicated by the emotional intensity that accompanies challenging interactions. Be kind, realistic and understanding when self-evaluating how quickly you can change your interaction skills and types of support you need to make the change.

Effective Interaction Patterns. (1993). In *Quality Education Initiatives*. Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

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EFFECTIVE INTERACTION PATTERNS

The Effective Interaction Patterns program is a model for how to respond to students who are presenting discipline problems in the classroom. This model presents communication-based strategies for school personnel, particularly teachers, to use in the classroom to stop inappropriate student behaviors. It is designed for use with students whose behavior is noncompliant, disruptive, and is interfering with their own or other students' learning.

This approach is based on the assumption that when students are "out of control," inattentive, or unwilling to study, then very little learning will take place. Conversely, if students are on task and behaving appropriately in the classroom they will learn more. Therefore, stopping students' inappropriate behavior is considered the foundation of an effective educational institution. The major focus of this model is on how to stop inappropriate behavior, get students on task, keep them on task, and help teachers gain control of the classroom.

The first training component to this approach is to show teachers how to analyze their belief-systems about why students misbehave. Specific training procedures demonstrate that certain common belief-systems may not be substantiated by observable evidence. These erroneous belief-systems may actually give students the message that they are incapable of controlling themselves, and therefore that they are "excused" for misbehaving.

The next training component of the model analyzes actual teacher and student interactions and communication patterns, and helps teachers determine what messages they are communicating to their students; they can then analyze whether their current strategies for stopping inappropriate behavior are effective or ineffective. The model demonstrates that when teachers assume that a student is incapable of appropriate behavior – (e.g., "his brothers were like that, what can you expect?") – that they use vague, abstract, and indirect communication patterns rather than clear, concrete, and direct messages about what they want the student to do.

Examples of effective communication patterns are presented, and contrasts are drawn between these and ineffective communication. Teachers then explore how to incorporate the information into their own classroom management system. They are given a format for developing an individual discipline lesson plan which involves other school personnel or parents; they are also shown how to develop back-up techniques; and they are presented with a model for conducting brief parent phone interviews and conferences.

Saifer, S. (1994, Jan/Feb). Helping children with challenging behaviors. *National Head Start Bulletin*, p. 6.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

Helping Children With Challenging Behaviors

by Steffen Saifer, Education Specialist, Region X Head Start Technical Assistance Support Center, Portland, Oregon

If you have a child in your class who exhibits extreme negative behavior (such as defiance, physical or verbal aggression, cruelty, or self-abuse) you should work with your program's mental health consultant to: 1) Determine possible root causes of the behavior and begin the process of changing it (**transformation**); 2) Intervene positively when the behavior occurs to begin to change the behavior and instill self-control and self-efficacy (**intervention**); and 3) Change your own behavior and/or the physical environment to prevent the negative behavior from emerging again (**prevention**).

Transformation:

There is a cause for all behaviors, although it can sometimes be difficult to determine the cause. Children behave in a negative way for a variety of reasons, including: the behavior works (the child gets what s/he wants, be it a coveted toy or attention); it's a habit; it's what is modeled and expected at home and in the neighborhood; it's an expression of anger, fear, or other stresses (even very young children feel complex emotions but often cannot express them appropriately); and/ or there is lack of control for physical reasons (poor nutrition or health, allergies, brain chemical imbalances, etc.). Work with family service staff and others to alter the root causes of challenging behavior in the child's life. Understanding the possible causes will make you more empathetic toward the child and your empathy may be the single most important thing needed to help the child.

Intervention:

The best intervention strategies assume ignorance, not malice, on the part of the child. Teach the child more positive and productive alternative ways to get her/his needs met. Validate the child's needs and feelings first and then provide as much help as necessary (for some children a great deal of highly directive help is needed) to practice a different behavior. For example, for a child who pushes another child to get a toy, tell her/him, "You really want that toy and I'm going to help you get it, but I can't let you hurt someone to get it. This is a safe classroom and I won't let anyone hurt you or let you hurt anyone." Then, keeping both children together, teach them the words to use to negotiate a turn, a trade, or some other mutually agreeable solution. It is important that this be done with both children because negotiation is best learned during interaction. This will take time and energy, but there are seldom short cuts to changing behavior. Notice this strategy of teaching appropriate behavior does not include use of time out, consequences, or other punitive approaches. Most children with challenging behavior already feel demoralized and powerless and punishment only supports those feelings.

Prevention:

Your most effective strategy for helping children with challenging behavior involves the creation of a classroom where children feel empowered. They must have opportunities to make real choices, take on leadership roles and appropriate responsibility, positively impact others, demonstrate competence, receive individual attention, be appreciated and supported, be taken seriously, and given challenges. Messages about empowerment are sent to children through choices that are made about the physical environment of a classroom, daily schedules, procedures and routines, and types of responses to their inquiries. Curriculum strategies that include positive, prosocial interactions (such as cooperative movement games) and practice at dealing with conflict (role plays, puppets, etc.) are extremely helpful.

For more information, see *Practical Solutions to Practically Every Problem: The Early Childhood Teacher's Manual* (Redleaf Press, 1990). ❑

Jewett, J. (1994, Winter). Aggression and cooperation: Helping young children develop constructive strategies. *The Best Times*, p. 5.

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Winter, 1994

Pre-School PLACE

AGGRESSION AND COOPERATION:

HELPING YOUNG CHILDREN DEVELOP CONSTRUCTIVE STRATEGIES

– Jan Jewett

Aggression and cooperation represent two critical features in the child's social domain. Both emerge from the child's strong developmental push to initiate and maintain relationships with other children, beginning at a very early age. Aggression and cooperation are two possible strategies for dealing with the normal conflicts of early peer interactions.

Aggression is defined here as any intentional behavior that results in physical or mental injury to any person or animal, or in damage to or destruction of property. Because peer interactions in their earliest forms emerge from play in which infants treat each other as they would treat a toy or interesting object, unintentional aggression is a common and natural form of behavior for infants and toddlers. These accidental behaviors can enable young children to achieve desired results and can easily develop into instrumental forms of aggression.

Studies indicate that young children cite aggressive behavior as a significant reason for disliking others. Research also indicates that aggressive behavior is responsive to environmental influences and can be encouraged or discouraged by experiences in home and school.

Aggression should not be confused with assertion—behavior through which a child maintains and defends his or her own rights and concerns. Assertive behavior reflects the child's developing competence and autonomous functioning and represents an important form of developmental progress. Assertiveness also affords the young child a healthy form of self-defense against the aggressions of others.

Evidence suggests that children who exhibit instrumental and hostile forms of aggression during the preschool years have been exposed, in early family interactions, to adults who encourage, model, or condone aggression by using discipline techniques that are punitive, rigid, and authoritarian; ignoring or permitting aggressive actions by the child and other children; providing or tolerating aggressive toys or aggressive images from television, movies, and books in the child's surroundings; or modeling aggression in their own interpersonal interactions.

Cooperation is defined here as any activity that involves the willing interdependence of two or more children. It should be distinguished from compliance, which may represent obedience to rules or authority, rather than intentional cooperation. Family variables related to the development of cooperation include parental discipline techniques involving the use of high expectations and competent communication, including reasons for family rules and limits.

Aggressive behavior can emerge as a normal behavior during the second and third years of life. Aggressive toddlers or preschoolers can benefit from support and encouragement for replacing aggressive behaviors with more socially productive alternatives. Important techniques include helping young children label and verbalize their feelings and those of others, develop problem solving approaches to conflicts, seek and obtain assistance when in difficulty, and notice the consequences of their aggressive actions for their victims. Age-appropriate anger management techniques, and discussion of the causes and consequences of interpersonal conflicts, can help both young children and their caregivers deal with emerging aggressive behaviors. Adult guidance that is consistent, supportive, nonpunitive, and includes the child in understanding the reactions of all participants and the reasons for limits, will help even very young children cope with aggressive behaviors.

Parents and teachers can recognize and foster cooperative behaviors by acknowledging children's efforts to initiate social interactions in appropriate ways, affirming helping behaviors, using positive discipline techniques, communicating positive regard and high expectations for all young children, and supporting each child's struggle to resolve interpersonal conflicts. Of critical importance are classroom strategies that promote cooperative, rather than competitive, endeavors; foster dramatic play techniques and reflective strategies for thinking about and discussing social interactions; and enable children to get to know and trust each other and work towards truly interdependent activity.

Early childhood educators can support the emergence of trusting and positive interpersonal strategies by encouraging the formation of play groups and regular social interactions. Children benefit from consistent and sustained relationships in which they can build trust, understand and predict the responses of their peers, and gain confidence in their ability to cope with conflictual interactions.

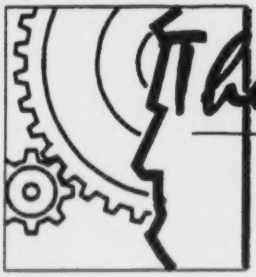
Educators can help parents address the common aggressive behaviors of young children in a nonjudgmental and constructive manner. They can encourage parents to provide regular opportunities for children to develop productive and sustained friendships.

Adapted from: ERIC Digest EDO-PS-92-10

Hartwig, L. (1993, Fall). G.O.T. IT! Problem Solving Program. *The Best Times*, p. 2.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

Fall, 1993



The Clinical Corner

G.O.T. IT! PROBLEM SOLVING PROGRAM

– Laurie Hartwig, Granite School District

"Teacher, Bobby..."

Anyone who has spent more than five minutes in a classroom can fill in the blank. Usually, this tattle joined with a whine is not music to a teacher's ears. Some typical teacher responses involve solving the problem for the student, ignoring the situation, or encouraging the students to solve the problem themselves.

> *While these responses may alleviate the immediate problem, they do not provide long term solutions for the students or the teacher involved.*

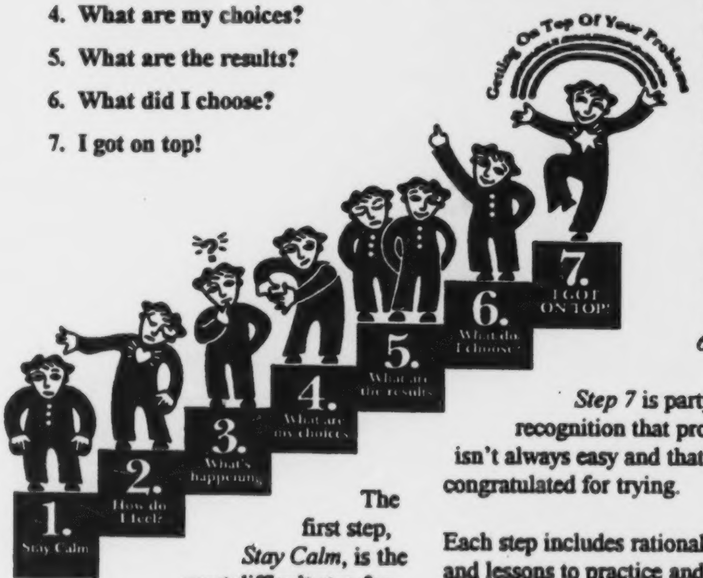
G.O.T. IT! is a program designed to teach students the steps of problem solving. G.O.T. IT! is an acronym for Getting On Top (of your problems). The program utilizes and adapts the steps of problem solving used in publications by Hill Walker, McGinnis and Goldstein, and others. Certainly, the content contains nothing new or startling (sorry). What is exciting is the presentation and the packaging.

Over the last four years, we (Laurie Hartwig, who is a former resource teacher and now coordinator, and Gina Meredith, a school psychologist) have taught G.O.T. IT! in classrooms and small groups. The response has been wonderful! The students love it and teachers plead for the lessons. We have even been bribed to present it in classes (this may come in handy considering low teacher pay).

Why teach social skills and problem solving? Two reasons come to mind. First, to help our students become functional and independent by solving their own problems. Second, to preserve teacher sanity (some days this is the most compelling reason).

GOT IT! involves seven steps for problem solving:

1. **Stay calm.**
2. **How do I feel?**
3. **What happened?**
4. **What are my choices?**
5. **What are the results?**
6. **What did I choose?**
7. **I got on top!**



The first step, *Stay Calm*, is the most difficult step for children and adults. When teaching this step, it is necessary to discuss the importance of staying calm. Students will be able to generate ideas. We also teach methods of relaxation and stress management.

Step 2 includes lessons on what feelings are, where they come from, how they influence our behavior, and how to deal with them.

Step 3 is the "just the facts, ma'am" stage. it is important for the students to detach from their perceptions of what happened to describe factually the event. Sometimes this alone changes the perspective.

Brainstorming is a key element for *Step 4*. We consider all the ideas equally whether they are good, bad, or ugly.

Step 5 discusses the relation between cause and effect. If you want to change the result, change the action preceding the event.

The student must commit to a plan of action for *Step 6*.

Step 7 is party time! The recognition that problem solving isn't always easy and that you should be congratulated for trying.

Each step includes rationale for the step and lessons to practice and learn the concept. There are additional lessons in negotiation, handling anger, making requests, and pre-skills such as eye contact and listening. We have also included student work sheets, practice situations, role playing ideas, generalization hints, and parent letters.

If you are interested in this program or a presentation, please contact Laurie (565-9088) or Gina (967-6135). The enthusiasm for this program has been overwhelming. We hope you will enjoy it too.

Information Note. (1992, Autumn). *The Best Times*, p. 6.

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INFORMATION NOTE

PERIODS	TEACHER INITIALS	CLASS PERFORMANCE (CIRCLE ONE)	ASSIGNED HOMEWORK	FUTURE TESTS	MISSING WORK?
		G great A average U unproductive			
		G great A average U unproductive			
		G great A average U unproductive			
		G great A average U unproductive			
		G great A average U unproductive			
		G great A average U unproductive			
		G great A average U unproductive			

NAME: **DATE:** **PHONE:**

COMMENTS:

COUNSELOR'S SIGNATURE: PARENT'S SIGNATURE:

My Daily Home Note. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 41). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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My Daily Home Note

Name: Date:

Parent's Initials						
Behavior(s)	Teacher(s) Initials	MON	TUE	WED	THUR	FRI

Rating Scale Unsatisfactory = 1 Average = 2 Great = 3

Comments:

Teacher's Phone: Parent's Phone:

See page 27 for suggestions for use.

My Weekly Home Note. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 43). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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My Weekly Home Note

Name: **Week of:**

Subject(s) or Behavior(s)	**Teacher(s)' Initials**	**MON**	**TUE**	**WED**	**THUR**	**FRI**	**Comments**

Rating Scale G = Great A = Average U = Unsatisfactory

Parent's Initials | MON | TUE | WED | THUR | FRI

Any homework?

Any upcoming tests?

Any missing work?

See page 27 for suggestions for use.

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). Homenotes to improve motivation. In K. H. Reavis, S. J. Kukic, W. R. Jenson, & D. P. Morgan. *Technical Assistance Manuals* (p. 1 - 11). Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

Homenotes to Improve Motivation

Objectives

By the end of this module, you will know:

- ✓ The variables that make homenotes effective.
- ✓ How to implement a homenote system.
- ✓ How to enhance the effectiveness of a homenote system.
- ✓ How to solve specific problems associated with homenote systems.

Introduction

Homenote systems are one of the most effective techniques for improving a student's motivation and classroom behavior. They are also one of the most mismanaged and underutilized techniques. A homenote system is simply a note (a) that is periodically completed by a teacher, (b) that assesses academic and behavioral progress, (c) which is sent home for the parents to review, apply consequences, and sign, and (d) returned to school.

A major strength of a homenote system involves the school-to-home and back-to-school cycle because it informs parents of their child's progress and allows the use of consequences in the home that are rarely available to the teacher.

Are Homenotes Effective?

There are several published studies and reviews of research about homenote systems that document their effectiveness (Atkeson, & Forehand, 1979; Barth, 1979; Broughton, Barton, & Owen, 1981). The available evidence suggests that a well-designed homenote system can improve academic performance and classroom behavior. Academic behaviors that have been improved using a homenote system include listening to the teacher's instructions, participating in class, answering questions, working with eyes and head towards materials, completing classwork neatly, competing homework, and achieving at an appropriate level (Atkeson, & Forehand, 1979; Broughton et al., 1981). Specific examples of academic enhancement include improving math scores (Karraker, 1972); increasing homework completion in two classes of seventh and eight grade students from averages of 65% to 85% (Lordeman, & Winnett, 1980); and in-seat completion of reading assignments from an average of approximately 46% to 84% (Imber, Imber, & Rothstein, 1979).

Classroom behavior also improves with a well-designed homenote system. Frequently, when classroom behaviors improve, there is also an increase in academic performance. Specific classroom behaviors that have been pinpointed for change with homenotes include off-task behavior, aggression, classroom rule violation, tantrums, talk-outs, disturbing others, out-of-seat, and other behaviors (Atkeson, & Forehand, 1979; Broughton et al., 1981; Barth, 1979; Imber et al., 1979; Taylor, Cornwell, Riley, 1984) All of these behaviors are good candidates for use with homenote systems. One study demonstrated a 90% decrease in disruptive classroom behavior when a homenote program was implemented (Ayllon, Garber, & Pisor, 1975).

What Makes Homenotes Effective?

One important variable is the need to hold a parent meeting or training before a homenote system is implemented. This is designed to orient the parent to the note, help them set up home consequences, and make sure the note is not used in a punitive manner. Training can range from a 2 hour training session (Ayllon, et al., 1975) to a telephone parent training session (Imber et al, 1979), or to simply a sheet of instructions that is sent home to the parents and explains the homenote procedures (Lahey, Gendrich, Gendrich, Schnelle, Gant, & McNees, 1977). Whatever method is used, it is important to have a parent contact in which the parents are given directions about receiving, reacting to, and trouble-shooting a homenote program. However, face-to-face contact with a parent is the best approach.

Many parents are willing and interested in cooperating with teachers.

Other effectiveness variables found in the homenote research literature involve such factors as whether the note is totally positive or contains some type of mild punishment procedure if the student does not perform well or loses the homenote (Atekson, & Forehand, 1979; Broughton, et al., 1981). Some research indicates that praise for good performance and loss of basic home privileges for poor performance is more effective than just positive consequences (Schumaker, Hovell, & Sherman, 1977).

Other issues include whether a simple "Yes" and "No" is better than a more detailed rating, whether notes should be sent home daily or only at the end of the week, or the advantages of a simple note as compared to a complex and information-packed note. Each of these issues will be described in implementing an effective homenote program.

How to Implement A Homenote System

The basic principles for starting a homenote system are relatively easy and economical. However, several questions should be answered before a homenote system is implemented. First, is there a need? Is a particular student having academic or behavioral difficulties in the classroom? If the answer is yes, then a homenote may be the answer. Second, are the parents cooperative and willing to start a homenote system? This is an impossible question to answer without first meeting with the parents. However, many teachers feel that behaviorally disordered and unmotivated students will have parents with similar characteristics. This is generally not the case. Many parents are willing and interested in cooperating with teachers. Remember many parents have been repeatedly called by school personnel over the years to complain about their child's lack of academic progress or behavioral difficulties. You may be the first teacher to offer cooperation and a solution. Do not be surprised if the parents are somewhat suspicious.

> *Once you commit to start a homenote program, then you must be organized enough to run it.*

The last question to ask is, "Am I organized enough as a teacher to start a homenote program?". You can not expect a student to be organized and perform if you are a model of disorganization. If you forget to sign a homenote, or do not take the time to make appropriate comments, or if you don't make sure the student has a new homenote at the beginning of the week, then you will make a bad impression on the student and parents. In addition, if consequences are applied at home for bringing the note home or for good performance, then the student may suffer if you do not follow through. Once you commit to start a homenote program, then you must be organized enough to run it. However, good homenote systems almost run themselves. There are nine basic steps for implementing a homenote program:

Step 1: The first step is to design a simple note. Complex notes are difficult to complete and they are often not read by parents. Make the note simple, and if you decide to give a note to a student each day, make sure one note will last for the whole week. It is difficult to xerox a new note each day. A sample note that can be used with elementary and secondary students can be found at the end of this module. The note has space for five behaviors and the note can be rated Monday through Friday on a single sheet of paper.

Step 2: Have an idea about which behaviors you would like to list on the note. Again, simplicity is the basic rule. Never have more than five behaviors because it is too difficult for the student to track, and it will be difficult for you to monitor the progress on more than five behaviors. In addition, the behaviors should consist of both academic behaviors and classroom behaviors. For example, a homenote might list (1) reading performance, (2) arithmetic performance, (3) spelling performance, (4) paying attention, and (5) following teacher's directions. This is a good blend of academic and classroom behaviors. The comments section of the note can be used to give parents additional information or to provide information about homework assignments.

Step 3: The next step is to arrange a meeting with the student's parents to discuss the homenote program and to gain their cooperation. Parent contacts can be done on the telephone, through a letter, or by having them come into school for a meeting. If possible, it is better to have the parents come in for a face-to-face meeting. It is also important to remember that many parents have been contacted by the school before. However, many of these contacts have been aversive because their only purpose has been to report about a student's problem or complain about the student's behavior without offering help. It is important to emphasize that you are asking for their input and cooperation, but that you are also going to offer some concrete help. Clearly express your hope that you can work cooperatively together. Once the parents have agreed to the meeting, then a set of goals should be set for the meeting.

Goal 1: Ask for the parent's input about what behaviors they would like to see changed.

Goal 2: Describe the behaviors that you would like to list on the homenote. Determine if the parents agree that these are important behaviors (e.g., reading, arithmetic, or spelling performance, paying attention, following teacher's instruction, or being prepared for class).

Goal 3: Determine what positive or mildly aversive consequences the parent can deliver at home depending of the student's homenote performance.

Goal 4: Ask the parent to read the note each day and make sure it is initialed by you, and sign it to indicate they have read the note.

Goal 5: Convince the parent that they should accept no excuse or reason for the student not bringing the note home. Common reasons given by students are "I lost the note", "There was a substitute teacher who would not fill out the note", "A kid stole the note from me", or "The teacher ran out of notes". In addition, identify a consequence for the student if he or she loses or forgets the note.

Goal 6: Give the parent a copy of your telephone number so they can call if they are confused about the program or they have a question to ask.

Step 4: It is important to use consequences for homenote performance. There should be positive consequences for appropriate classroom performance and behavior. There should also be mildly aversive consequences for poor performance or classroom misbehavior. Examples of consequences that can be agreed upon in the parent meeting are:

1. For a perfect day, the student stays up 30 minutes later than normal (i.e., if the student's regular bed time is 8:00 p.m., he would stay up to until 8:30 p.m.).

2. For each frowny face ☹, the student goes to bed 10 minutes early (i.e., if the student's bedtime is 8:00 p.m. then a note with three frowny faces would mean the student goes to be at 7:30 p.m.).

3. For a perfect, day the student watches an additional 30 minutes of television.

4. For each frowny face, the student misses 30 minutes of television (i.e., if the student gets two frowny faces, then the student misses one hour from the allotted three hours of television watching).

Other consequences for elementary students might include the right to use a bicycle, time on the Nintendo Video game, computer time, or allowance money earned or lost. For adolescents, consequences might include the right to use the family automobile on the weekend, using the telephone, or listening to music on the family stereo. It is important to find meaningful consequences. Homenotes work if there is something valued that can be earned or lost. However, just earning positive rewards is generally not enough.

Step 5: Decide when the homenote will start and how frequently the note will be given. It is generally better to start off giving the homenote each day and slowly fading to giving the note only on Fridays, and finally no note. For example, a student could be told that when she gets eight good or perfect weeks (not necessarily eight weeks in a row), then she will get the note only on Fridays. When they get another eight good weeks then they are off the note entirely.

Step 6: Once the note has been designed, the behaviors defined, the parent meeting held, the consequences determined, and the frequency of the note arranged, then you must pick a date to start. The date should be selected with the parents or the parents must be informed. Mondays are the best days to start. It will also help a great deal if the teacher calls the parents at least twice during the first week and once a week for the next two weeks after the program has started. The calls can be used to troubleshoot any problems and to show the parents that you are interested. They also let the student know that there is a firm and cooperative link between you and their parents.

Step 7: On the first day, give the student the note and mark each behavior on the card. A global evaluation of each behavior is fine. If you are too detailed and take too much time, you are less likely to use the note in the future. Mark the note as accurately as you can, but do not take too much time.

Mark each note with a happy face ☺ or sad face ☹ for younger students. For older students or adolescents, a variety of markings can be used: E for excellent, S for satisfactory, or a U for unsatisfactory. Other teachers simply mark the note with a plus (+) for satisfactory work or a zero (0) for poor work. Do not use a minus (-) because it can be changed into plus (+) very easily. It is important also to initial each rating because initials are difficult to forge, and it adds a personal touch that you have marked and reviewed the note.

Step 8: If possible, make the student successful for the first couple of days with good notes. Some parents are worried that a teacher might use the note to simply punish their child. Making the student successful is important. However, the first time you mark an unsatisfactory behavior on the note, it is good practice to tell the student exactly why they are being marked down and then ask the student to repeat the reason (frequently at home parents will ask the student why they got a poor mark and this is a good method to insure the student knows the answer). It is also wise, if possible, to call the parent on the day of the poor mark to answer any questions and comment on how well the program is going.

Step 9: After the program has been in operation for approximately 4 to 6 weeks, arrange another parent conference or at least make a telephone call to review the student's progress. It is important in this meeting to be optimistic and emphasize the gains the student has made. This is also an excellent opportunity to troubleshoot any problems with the program with the parent.

> *Homenotes are particularly prone to problems because they rely on a student to carry the note. However, the problems are fairly easy to fix if you have a well designed program and a cooperative parent.*

Troubleshooting a Homenote Program

Problems can occur even with the best programs. Homenotes are particularly prone to problems because they rely on a student to carry the note. However, the problems are fairly easy to fix if you have a well designed program and a cooperative parent.

Problem: The student continues to lose the note.

Solution: Have the student go to bed one hour early, or miss all of television or outside play time each day they forget the note. It is important to emphasize to the student that no excuses are accepted and that it is their responsibility to ask the teacher for the note at the end of the school day.

Problem: The student changes the ratings or forges your initials.

Solution: Changing a rating (i.e., making a sad face happy) or forging initials should be handled like a lost note. No excuses should be accepted and the student should go to bed an hour early or lose all television privileges. It is important to prepare parents for this problem. It is not uncommon, particularly if a student may lose some of his privileges because of poor ratings from the teacher. The parent should have your telephone number to call if they suspect the homenote has been altered.

A frequent excuse used by a student is that they marked the card because their teacher was absent and the substitute teacher did not know how to mark the card. In such instances, the student should be taught an alternative solution which is to ask someone in the principal's office for help with the note if the substitute teacher is unaware of the procedures. This person (a secretary or aide) could go with the student and ask the substitute for the rating, answering any questions that the substitute might have.

Problem: The student refuses to take the note.

Solution: This is a relatively rare problem but it does occur. If the student flatly refuses to take the note, have the parent consistently implement the procedures for a lost note (i.e., to bed early, no television, or loss of outside play privileges). It may be important to be a support for the parent during this difficult time. A telephone call and confident reassurance can help a great deal. Most children and adolescents will come around in about a week after the parents have consistently applied the consequences. However, it may help to enhance the program by using some type of reinforcement procedure in the classroom for the student taking and using the note. Several different reinforcement procedure will be discussed in the next section.

Problem: The parents are willing to look at the note, but they are incapable of applying consequences at home for the program.

Solution #1: Try putting together a reinforcer kit and delivering it to the home. The kit can contain some simple reinforcers (e.g. candy, stickers, little toys). that the parent can give the student for a good note.

Solution #2: Obtain the parent's permission for you to apply the consequences for the note in your classroom. At least have the parent review and sign the note. When it is returned the next day, then you can manage some in class reinforcers (e.g. mystery motivator, spinner, grab bad) or mild punishers (e.g. missing recess, having to stay after school, eating lunch in the classroom and not in the lunchroom, no in-class free time).

Problem: You suspect the parents may be abusive to the student if he receives a poor note.

Solution: Ask the parents to come in and ask for their cooperation in helping to apply the agreed upon consequences (both positive and mildly aversive). Tell them that if they punish too much it will make the program fail and the student will learn to dislike school. If abuse continues, you may have to discontinue the program or call the authorities if the abuse is severe. This is a serious problem, but it occurs rarely.

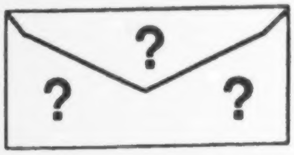
Problem: A parent refuses to participate in the program and will not even sign the note.

Solution: Ask the parents for a face-to-face meeting. In the meeting ask about their concerns, and determine if you can answer any of the difficult concerns they may have. If both parents come in, appeal to the parent who seems most willing to participate. Explain that the homenote program is not designed to punish the student, but to give the student feedback about his performance and to keep the parent informed. Ask if they would be willing to try the program for as little as two weeks. If the parents still refuse, tell them that you would like to give the student the note anyway and hope they will look at the note (remember- in this case make sure the note is primarily positive for the first week).

Enhancing Homenote Performance Techniques

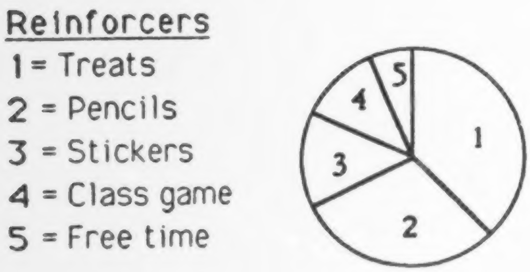
Homenotes work well if they are designed as described above. However, it sometime helps to add some techniques that will make an unmotivated student work even harder or overcome some of the problems associated with homenotes. Some of these techniques are:

1. Unique Reinforcers: Reinforcers can be classroom-based or they can be home-based. Their general function is to motivate the student to do well with their note ratings and to bring the note home and back to school. An example of using a unique reinforcer is a refrigerator Mystery Motivator (M&M). The mystery motivator is simply an sealed envelope that is placed on the refrigerator.

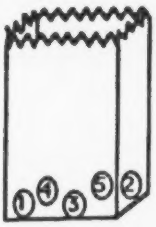


Inside the envelope is a slip of paper that has a reward written on it. Once or twice a week, if the student brings the note home with all good markings, then student then gets the mystery motivator. It may help if the teacher calls the parent to tell them it is a mystery motivator day or writes on the homenote a prearranged code for the parent that indicates it is a mystery motivator day.

Another unique reinforcement system that works equally well is a spinner. If the student brings the note home with all good markings, he/she is allowed to spin the arrow. Whatever the arrow lands on the student gets.



Another program is a grab bag that has 5 or 6 rewards in it. The student is allowed to select one reward without looking on days of good homenote performance.



Unique reinforcement systems can be used either at home (as in these examples) or in the classroom if the student does well. However, these are added incentives and should not take the place of the basic privileges and mild punishers that have already been discussed.

2. Random Notes: Some teachers would like to use a homenote system with their whole class, however, the time involved in completing 20 to 30 notes is prohibitive. One approach that has shown excellent results is to pick two or three students randomly at the end of each day in the classroom and send a note home with them. This approach was used by Saudargas, Madsen, and Scott (1977). They compared the effects of sending a note home only on Fridays only (fixed) as opposed to sending it home with randomly selected students on any day of the week (variable). The fixed notes produced an 80% assigned academic work completed. The random approach increased work production 140%. Clearly, a random note approach with a whole class is an effective technique.

If two or three students are picked at random in a class each day to take a note home, it helps to tell the students that you will call one of their parents to talk about the note and make sure that it got home.

3. Group Contingencies: Group contingencies provide a consequence to a group depending on the behavior of one or two students. Gresham (1983)

used a group contingency in combination with a homenote to improve the classroom behavior of an 8 year old mildly retarded male, Billy. Billy had an extreme history of destructive behavior in his foster home that included setting fires, destroying property, and aggression towards his foster siblings. The foster mother requested help from the teacher and school psychologist who set up a homenote program. If Billy's home behavior was nondestructive he earned juice time, recess, tokens, and a Billy party for the whole class on Friday. The use of a group contingency reduced Billy's destructive acts of an average of 3 per day to virtually 0 per day.

4. Homenotes as a Behavioral Contract: Sometimes it is useful to use the homenote program in conjunction with a classroom behavioral contract. For example, have a student save their 100% week homenotes. These are the perfect homenotes in which the student has made all positive ratings for the whole week. Each 100% homenote is worth a ticket. When a student has saved enough tickets they get a special reward or privilege. The student might have to save four 100% homenotes and then get a special treat-being taken by the teacher to a fast food restaurant for lunch. Behavioral contracts can also be combined with a group contingency. When a student earns four 100% homenotes, then the entire class gets to watch a special video and have a popcorn party.

Do not set the requirement so the student has to earn a set number of notes in a row or consecutively. Instead, make the requirement cumulative so the student can save 100% notes and then possibly have a poor week. A cumulative requirement is much better than a stringent consecutive requirement.

Cautions

Some teachers object to the use of homenotes. The most common objections to homenotes by teachers include:

1. "Homenotes take too much time to fill out"- A well designed homenote takes approximately 30 to 60 seconds to fill out.

2. "Parents will not take the time to read the note and do the program"- The research clearly shows that a majority of parents approve of the homenote program and will work with teachers.

3. "Students will lose the notes or counterfeit the signatures"- This sometimes happens, but a well designed homenote program has built-in safeguards to stop these problems.

4. "Homenotes are only effective in the beginning and lose their effectiveness"- This is not true when the research is reviewed. A well designed homenote system can produce durable changes in motivation and behavior.

5. "Homenotes are only effective with younger students, not secondary students"- This is not true when the research is reviewed. Much of the application research has been done with secondary students.

Case Study

Jake is an ten year old student in the 5th grade who has been having both academic and behavioral difficulties over the past two years. Jake's mother approached the teacher and asked if there was any type of extra help or counseling that might help Jake and get him back on the right path. She explained that she was a single mother and had some difficulty supervising Jake until she came home from work each day. When she got home, she could manage Jake and she had tried to get information from him about how well he did that day in school and his homework assignments. Jake indicated that he was doing very well, and that he did his homework at school. Neither of which were true. The mother appeared concerned and responsible and tried to provide a structured home life for Jake. She had him do a set of chores each day, and had a set bed time for Jake and his younger brother which was 9:00 p.m.

The teacher immediately recognized the advantages to this case. First, the mother had approached the teacher for help and appeared very cooperative. Second, although Jake was unsupervised until the mother got home, she could then manage his behavior. Third, the mother wanted daily information about Jake's progress in the class and his homework assignments. Fourth, Jake had shown an interest in whatever rewards and reinforcers the teacher had used in the classroom. Fifth, when the teacher interviewed the mother about home practices, the mother indicated that Jake did not like his bed time of 9:00 p.m. and preferred to stay up later with the mother watching and additional of television. At the end of the teacher-parent meeting, their was an exchange of telephone numbers in case there were questions or difficulties with the program.

The mother and teacher decided to implement a homenote program starting next Monday. The consequences were: (1) Jake gets to stay up an additional 30 minutes past his 9:00 p.m. bedtime for a perfect home note, (2) for each 0 on his homenote Jake goes to bed 10 minutes early, and (3) when Jake get three perfect weeks (not in a row) of homenotes he can cash them in for lunch with the teacher. If Jake loses the homenote or alters the ratings, he goes to bed one hour early (8:00 p.m.) and TV privileges the next day. In addition, the teacher implemented an in-class mystery motivator. She picked an envelope and wrote a reward (e.g. getting to sit anywhere in class, 10 minutes free time with a buddy, candy from the class store, etc) on a piece of paper. She also wrote on the outside of the envelope a day of the week (and did not show Jake) that if he brought his note back to class and signed by his mother, that day he would get the mystery motivator. Jake could get from one to two mystery motivator each week.

It was explained to Jake that it was his responsibility to get the note to the teacher at the end of the day and have it signed. The teacher and parent would accept no excuses. The behaviors on the note included: (1) acceptable work in reading, (2) acceptable work in arithmetic, (3) completing and turning in the daily assigned homework, (4) paying attention in class, and (5) no arguing behavior. Jake was also required to write his daily homework assignment on the Comment section of the note. Each day the teacher would initial the note, and likewise at home, when the mother read the note she would initial it.

As predicted, the first week went fairly well and the teacher made sure that Jake was successful and he got two mystery motivators. However, on the second week, Jake had difficulties and lost the note. He simply indicated to his mother that the teacher forgot to make up a new note and would give him one tomorrow. The parent called the teacher, and Jake went to bed an hour early and he lost TV privileges the next day. Jake was irate the next day in class and tore up the note and said he would not participate. He was particularly angry because his younger brother got the stay up and watch television when he had to go to bed an hour early. The teacher called the mother at work and discussed the problem. They both decided they could wait longer than Jake. That night he again went to bed an hour early and lost the next day's television privileges. He threw a temper tantrum, stomped out of the house, but came back and was put in bed by his mother. The next day he asked for the note, and did exceptionally well in class. The program has been running for two months. Jake has won three teacher contracts, got the mystery motivator eight times, and is doing particularly well in class. He could be taken off the note, however, the mother wants to continue because it gives her the basic information she needs to know to track Jake's school progress.

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My Daily Home Note

Name: ______________________ Month of: ______________________

Subject	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.

☺ or E = Excellent; student put forth extra effort

😐 or S = Satisfactory

☹ or U = Unsatisfactory, work was not completed and/or not done satisfactorily.

Comments: Mon. ______________________________________

____

Comments Tues. ______________________________________

____

Comments Wed. ______________________________________

____

Comments Thurs. ______________________________________

____

Comments Fri. ______________________________________

____

Teachers: Please initial your ratings each day so we know who gave the rating.

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PROACTIVE STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING SOCIAL BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS: AN INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Educators often approach instructional problems differently from social problems. Typically, proactive strategies are used to remediate instructional problems. On the other hand, reactive strategies are often used as the primary intervention for social problems. There are, however, clear parallels between instructional problems and social problems in both the way the respective behaviors are established and in the design of possible remedies. These parallels are identified and a basic instructional plan is presented for remedying social problems.

* * *

When a student makes an error in academic subjects, the typical correction procedure is to intervene by implementing a correction procedure (for example, model-lead-test) and providing the student with more practice and review (Carnine & Silbert, 1979; Engelmann & Carnine, 1982). However, if the errors become persistent or chronic, then additional steps are followed. The teacher has to diagnose the problem (i.e., try to identify the misrule), rearrange the presentation so that the student has more chance of focusing on the rule, and provide more practice and review (Engelmann, 1987; Engelmann & Carnine, 1982). Clearly, a *proactive* emphasis is placed on managing errors made in academic content.

In contrast, the occurrence of social behavior problems frequently elicits very different reactions. When a student breaks a classroom rule, infringes upon the rights of others, or violates setting or social norms, we intervene by providing *negative* consequences. The assumption is that the student will be more likely to choose the appropriate behavior the next time this particular situation arises. If the student fails to terminate this troublesome social behavior, the typical approach is to escalate the level of negative consequences, usually in the form of detention, suspension, and expulsion (Center & McKittrick, 1987). The assumption is that by removing the student from the normal environment, the student will behave appropriately in the future in order to stay in that environment. In effect, the teaching response is *reactive* when schools are confronted with social behavior problems.

It is evident that common practice among educators is to approach academic problems differently from social problems. Essentially, instructional prin-

Table 1
A Comparison of Approaches to Academic and Social Problems

Kind of Error	Procedures for Academic Problem	Procedures for Social Problem
Infrequent	Assume student is trying to make correct response.	Assume student is not trying to make correct response.
	Assume error was accidental.	Assume error was deliberate.
	Provide assistance (model-lead-test).	Provide negative consequence.
	Provide practice.	Practice not required.
	Assume student has learned skill and will perform correctly in future.	Assume student will make right choice and behave in future.
Frequent (Chronic)	Assume student has learned the wrong way.	Assume student refuses to cooperate.
	Assume student has been taught (inadvertently) the wrong way.	Assume student knows what is right and has been told often.
	Diagnose the problem.	Provide more negative consequences.
	Identify misrule.	Withdraw student from normal context.
	Adjust presentation, Focus on rule. Provide feedback. Provide practice and review.	Maintain student removal from normal context.
	Assume student has been taught skill and will perform correctly in future.	Assume student has "learned" lesson and will behave in future.

ciples are used to remediate academic problems while negative consequences typically are used to manage social problems. The differences in the two approaches are summarized in Table 1.

In this paper we illustrate how instructional principles can be employed to remediate chronic social behavior problems. The similarities between strategies for effective remediation of academic and social behavior difficulties will be described. Finally, the critical steps of this approach will be summarized.

Our presentation is premised on the application of effective and efficient teaching practices. These practices focus on skill development through a careful analysis of instructional content and an equally careful analysis of strategies for efficient delivery of instruction (Dixon, 1984; Engelmann & Carnine, 1982). Efforts are made to maximize achievement gains by increasing academic engaged time (Brophy & Good, 1986; Stevens & Rosenshine, 1981). Second, it is assumed that effective social behavior change strategies are used. These strategies come primarily from the applied behavior analysis literature (Paine, Radicchi, Rosellini, Deutchman, & Darch, 1983; Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988).

The last assumption is that the behavioral approach is the most appropriate for classroom settings. While other approaches have their proponents, the medical and developmental models have little application in educational settings because they rely on the direct treatment of physical problems or the indirect resolution of problems that are inherent to the student and inaccessible to teachers. In contrast, the behavioral model focuses on the relationship between what students do (i.e., their behaviors) and immediate environmental contexts (i.e., contingencies), and the manipulation of these contexts to strengthen or weaken behaviors.

The Instructional Model For Remediating Academic Learning Problems

When a student consistently produces academic errors during instruction, teachers typically attempt to remediate the problem in two steps. First, the student's error patterns are assessed. Teachers look for one of four different types of performance errors (White & Haring, 1980):

1. *Acquisition error:* Failure to learn the skill or rule to a level of minimum performance or the use of a misrule.
2. *Fluency error:* Failure to perform with sufficient speed or consistency even though the response might be accurate.
3. *Maintenance error:* Failure of the response to endure or persist after instruction is removed.
4. *Generalization error:* Failure to emit the response or skill under non-instructional conditions or to non-instructed examples.

An accurate identification of error type assists in the selection and/or modification of a suitable intervention.

The second step is to teach an alternative and effective response by shaping the instructional context and by providing differential feedback. In the former, we focus our attention on the antecedent and setting variables to which the students must respond. In the latter, the emphasis is placed on the positive reinforcement of correct student responses (or approximations of correct responses) and the removal or withholding of attention for incorrect responses.

Illustration

Beginning readers often use guessing strategies for certain words like "a" and "the" (Engelmann, 1988). Typically, they interchange "a" with "the", or skip these words or they might substitute other words. Teachers may have reinforced the student for decoding key words in a passage, but may have ignored errors related to decoding "the" and "a". It is possible, then, that a chain of responses may have been reinforced (correct responses on the key words and incorrect responses on "a" and "the"). In effect, the student may have been reinforced for guessing.

The important feature of this illustration is that students have *learned a strategy* for reading "a" and "the", albeit, an incorrect strategy. They have learned to guess rather than decode. To remedy the problem, we need to replace the guessing strategy with decoding skills. However, if we restricted our remedy to the use of reinforcement, we may not succeed in teaching a replacement strategy. If the student guessed correctly, positive consequences would follow. If the student guessed incorrectly, then positive consequences would not follow. The student would get feedback on which response is correct, but there is no guarantee that the student would know *why* the response is correct. In other words the student is *not likely to learn a replacement strategy through differential reinforcement alone*. To teach a replacement strategy (i.e., decoding skills) we need to shape the context *in addition* to using differential reinforcement.

To shape the context, we make changes in the task presentation so that it is easier to teach the replacement strategy (decoding) and, at the same time, decrease the likelihood that the student will use the incorrect strategy (guess). Three steps are involved in shaping the context:

1. Teach the replacement strategy to criterion in the *most simplified context.*
2. Teach the replacement strategy to criterion in contexts that are systematically adjusted from *the most simplified to the normal or target context.*
3. Teach the replacement strategy to criterion in the *normal or target context.*

In our illustration where the student has learned to guess when reading "a" or "the" in a passage, the replacement strategy would be decoding skills and the target context would be a passage. The most simplified context would be the words entirely removed from a passage. The student would be taught to decode the words "a" and "the" in a vertical word list such as:

cat
the
if
then
a
me
the
dog
a

For the second step we would introduce contexts that begin to approximate a passage such as a horizontal word list:

dog, the, cat, me, a, then, if, the, if, a.

Sentences could then be constructed that do not relate to each other such as:

The boy saw a dog. A girl hit the ball.

The final step would be to teach the decoding skills in a typical passage such as:

> The boy saw a dog. It was big and black. The boy was very scared and ran into a shop. The shopkeeper said, "You look scared, what is wrong?" The boy said, "There is a big black dog out there." The boy sat down in the store for a few minutes.

In effect there are two overall steps in remediating systematic error patterns in instruction. The first is to clearly identify the error pattern (the student guesses). Second, we need to teach a replacement strategy (decoding skills) by shaping the context (word lists, sentences, passages) and using differential reinforcement (feedback).

The Instructional Model for Remediating Social Behavior Problems

The same two steps can be used to remediate social behavior problems. When a student engages in an inappropriate social behavior, the first step is to *assess the error patterns*. In this case, the analysis is directed toward a social problem response. The observations are made within a functional analysis to test hypotheses as to why the response may or may not be effective for the student (Carr & Durrand, 1985).

The second step is to teach the student a replacement strategy by shaping the context and by providing differential feedback. The context is shaped to allow the student more of a chance to exhibit the replacement strategy than the typical unacceptable behavior. In effect, the student is taught to exhibit certain behaviors (more effective and more acceptable) in place of what usually is exhibited. Generally, the alternate response or replacement strategy is the typical or acceptable behavior displayed by other students in the particular context.

Illustration

Suppose that during small group instruction a student calls the teacher's name without raising her hand, calls the teacher names, and rips her reading materials when she is told to be quiet.

Step 1: Analyze the behavior pattern. When we assess the student's response patterns, we observe that the student usually engages in these undesirable responses when the reading words are *new* or *difficult*. We also notice that the student does not have an acceptable strategy for getting teacher attention. When the tantrum is concluded, we observe that the student gets the teacher to work with her, one-on-one, after the small group is over. In other observations we notice that these behaviors are not present when she is in a one-to-one situation. This assessment information indicates the following:

- The inappropriate behaviors occur in group instruction and do not occur in one-to-one instruction.
- Inappropriate behaviors begin in the context of difficult or new work in group instruction.
- Other students put up their hand when they need help. This student was never observed to put up her hand for help. Hand raising is the expected behavior for asking help.
- The behaviors escalate until she has the undivided attention of the teacher.

Step 2: Teach a replacement strategy. In the proactive model we assume that the student is not firm or reliable in producing the acceptable behaviors; consequently, these behaviors have to be taught. In this example, the behaviors that need to be taught are:

1. Raise hand to ask for help.
2. Remain on task when the teacher is attending to other students.

These replacement strategies are taught by shaping the context and by differential reinforcement. First, we must teach the student to raise her hand in the one-to-one context when she needs help. Since the unacceptable behaviors do not occur in the one-to-one situation, the teacher could begin by teaching her to raise her hand when she needs help. In this modified context, the student is more likely to produce the required response than the undesirable behaviors occurring in the group setting. The teacher could select work that the student can do almost at an independent level, tell her to raise her hand when she needs help, and also vary proximity to the student. If she talks out, the teacher should ignore her. However, if she raises her hand, the teacher should positively reinforce her for raising her hand and then provide assistance with additional enthusiasm and encouragement. The student should be given several practice sessions in this context until she reliably raises her hand when she needs help. She should be positively reinforced with effective reinforcers for on task behavior and task completion.

The next step is to teach the student to stay on task when the teacher is working with other students. The student can be given independent work that she finds interesting and encouraged to try to finish it by herself if she can. By choosing high interest work, the student has more chance of staying on task when the teacher is attending to other students. The student should be reinforced frequently, intermittently, and contingently for staying on task.

Finally, when the student is firm on raising her hand for help and has demonstrated that she can stay on task with independent work while the teacher works with other students, we can introduce her to small group instruction. Initially, we might provide a precorrection step at the beginning of each small group session. During this session the teacher would review all new and previously difficult words. This prevention strategy will help to ensure that the student will be successful with the content of the lesson. The precorrection should also include a review of what to do if you need help (i.e., raise hand) and what to do when the teacher is responding to other students (i.e., stay on task). A second strategy would be to design the instruction so that this student initially would get more turns than other students. Also, the sessions might be shorter and more frequent than usual so the student has more chance of being successful and gets more practice in group instruction. When the student is reliable in raising her hand for help and staying on task, the contexts should be modified systematically until the student receives as much attention as other students and the group instruction times are at the target length and frequency.

Table 2
Comparison of Procedures to Remediate Chronic Academic Problems and Chronic Behavior Problems

	Chronic Academic Problem	*Chronic Behavior Problem*
STEP 1	Identify the error pattern or misrule.	Identify functional relationships between behavior and environment.
STEP 2	Identify rule.	Identify expected or acceptable behaviors.
STEP 3	Modify examples and presentation to provide clearer focus on rule and provide less opportunity for practice of misrule.	Modify environment to allow practice of expected behaviors and remove stimuli that are likely to occasion the inappropriate behavior.
STEP 4	Provide differential feedback so that more accurate responses are more strongly reinforced.	Provide differential reinforcement so that direction of correct responding is reinforced.
STEP 5	Shape context towards target context, provide review and integrate skill with other skills.	Move towards least restrictive environment program for generalization and maintenance.

The procedures used to remediate a chronic error pattern in academics can be applied to remediating a chronic behavior problem. The similarities are summarized in Table 2.

Conclusion

At the beginning of this article, we made the assertion that educators typically use different procedures for managing chronic academic problems compared to chronic social behavior problems. Proactive strategies generally are used to remediate academic problems. However, in the management of serious or chronic behavior problems, the approach is often reactive, where a hierarchy of negative consequences are delivered leading to exclusion.

In our discussion we tried to demonstrate that instructional approaches to remedying academic problems have direct application to solving social behavior problems. The approach involves two steps. First, we analyze the behavior pattern, and second, we teach replacement strategies by modifying the context and using differential reinforcement. While the research literature supports this instructional model for social behavior problems, this approach is not widely used by educators. It has considerable potential for reducing behavior problems in school systems.

To summarize, we suggest that there is little difference in how teachers should respond to academic and social behavior problems. Both types of problems require a proactive approach in which (a) the student's performance patterns (correct and incorrect responses) are functionally analyzed, and (b) an alternate and effective response is taught by systematically manipulating the instructional context and providing differential reinforcement and feedback. This proactive approach could greatly reduce the degree to which students are excluded from schools and increase their opportunities for academic and social success.

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Level System Contract

Contracting period: ____________________ to ____________________.

I, ______________________________, agree to the following:

If I receive ______________ Excellents
______________ OKs
______________ Poors

I will earn **Level 1** privileges.

If I receive ______________ Excellents
______________ OKs
______________ Poors

I will earn **Level 2** privileges.

If I receive ______________ Excellents
______________ OKs
______________ Poors

I will earn **Level 3** privileges.

____
(Student Signature) Date

______________________________ ______________
(Teacher Signature) Date

See page 70 for suggestions for use.

Weekly level system contract with key. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 93). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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Weekly Level System Contract With Key

Name:	Subject:	Week of:	
Monday	Excellent ☐ OK ☐ Poor ☐	Teacher Signature	
Homework If so, what?	Yes ☐ No ☐		
Tuesday	Excellent ☐ OK ☐ Poor ☐	Teacher Signature	
Homework If so, what?	Yes ☐ No ☐		
Wednesday	Excellent ☐ OK ☐ Poor ☐	Teacher Signature	
Homework If so, what?	Yes ☐ No ☐		
Thursday	Excellent ☐ OK ☐ Poor ☐	Teacher Signature	
Homework If so, what?	Yes ☐ No ☐		
Friday	Excellent ☐ OK ☐ Poor ☐	Teacher Signature	
Homework If so, what?	Yes ☐ No ☐		
Totals for week:	Excellent _______	OK _______	Poor _______

Excellent	**OK**	**Poor**
1. On time	1. On time	1. Late
2. Consistently follows classroom rules	2. Follows classroom rules most of the time	2. Does not follow classroom rules
3. Completed assignments with 85-100% accuracy or worked consistently the entire period	3. Completed assignments with 65-85% accuracy	3. Completed assignments with less than 65% accuracy
4. Actively listens	4. Listens most of the time	4. Does not listen to the teacher
5. Volunteers in class discussions/activities	5. Participates when called upon	5. Does not participate in class discussions/activities

See page 70 for suggestions for use.

Rose Hill life space interviewing. (1994). In Rose Hill Elementary School. *Rose Hill behavior standards handbook.* Commerce City, CO: Author.

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ROSE HILL LIFE SPACE INTERVIEWING

STEP 1: Focus on the Incident

a. Incident occurs.
b. Offer assistance & support to student.
"It's going to be okay".
c. Find out from the student what happened.
d. Student may be able to begin responding.
e. Continue to support & affirm student.

Incident

Thoughts
&
Feelings

STEP 2: Students in Crisis Need to Talk

a. Give student opportunity to talk about incident.
b. Adults ask questions to get more information & understanding about incident. (not judgement of situation)
c. Focus on: Time (when?), Place (where?), People (who?)
d. Continue to support & affirm student.

Discussion of events
(when, who, where)

Feelings converted
to words

STEP 3: Find Central Issue & Select a Therapeutic Goal

a. Central issue is the theme or reason behind the behavior which led to incident.
b. You must determine the central issue to plan an appropriate goal.
c. Which therapeutic goal is needed?
  1. May need to focus on incident.
  2. Review standards for appropriate behavior. (focus on appropriate vs. their behavior)
  3. Teach new skills (see info on themes & goals) Determine theme/develop goal.
d. Continue to support & affirm student.

Becoming more aware
of feelings & needs
related to behavior

Feelings converted
to words

STEP 4: Choose a Solution to Meet Goal

a. Brianstorm with student to find solution.
b. Provide assistance with guidelines, options, rules.
c. Select solution.
d. Student states how solution meets his needs.
e. Continue to support & affirm student.

STEP 5: Plan for Success

Words converted into feelings of confidence

a. Develop plan for successful solution
b. Reherse new behaviors
c. Anticipate consequences
d. "What if . . ."
e. Continue to support & affirm student.

STEP 6: Get Ready to Return to Class

Storehouse of better thoughts & feelings

a. Discuss returning to class.
    1. What is group doing.
    2. What will you do.
    3. What will others do.
b. Summarize crisis intervention.
c. Support & affirm student for working with you.

Long, N. (1992). Life space interviewing. In *Students at Risk* (pp. 13 - 18). Storm Lake, IA: Leadership Institute in Administration of Special Education Programs.

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by Nicholas Long

Life space interviewing

Teaching in public schools in the 1990s is psychologically different than teaching in public schools in the 1950s. The decay and disorganization of the family and the painful social problems in the community have created a new level of deviancy and disturbance never before seen by educators and other adults who work with children and youth. Teachers are struggling daily with students who come to school flooded by painful reality problems such as alcoholism, drugs, suicidal thoughts, gang warfare, rape, physical and psychological abuse, crime, parental neglect and abandonment, poverty and brutality as entertainment. These problems will not disappear by themselves or be solved by having a kind dedicated teacher, a structured classroom, a behavior modification program or a time-out room. These high risk students enter the classroom ready to explode at the slightest frustration, disappointment or misperception. As a result, there are daily crises in every school which need to be managed and administrators, special educators, counselors, social workers and psychologists are demanding more sophisticated training in *crisis intervention* to help these troubled students.

The return of life space interviewing

The talking strategy I'm proposing for managing a school crisis is based on Fritz Redl's concept of Life Space Interviewing, first published in 1959 in the American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. Redl described the L.S.I. process as "... a mediating role between a child and what life holds for him." His intent was to view the helping adult as the mediator between the student's stress, his behavior, the reaction of others and his private world of feelings that he seems unable to handle without help. Today this remains an accurate way of describing the expanded uses of L.S.I. in the 1990s.

Life Space Interviewing (L.S.I.) is about talking to students who are in a crisis with their teachers, peers, assignments, rules and self. L.S.I. is very applicable in a school setting since it involves no special equipment or props except for a skilled and understanding teacher/counselor. Because every school crisis requires talk and intervention, specific verbal skills and concepts are essential to learn. However, it is not easy to learn how to talk with a student in a crisis without additional training.

A trained teacher/counselor, who is knowledgeable in L.S.I. skills, will influence directly the immediate outcome of a crisis and the long-term effect this crisis will have on the student. For example, a student crisis handled well can have positive long-term influence on the student while a student crisis handled poorly can escalate into a devastating cycle of alienation, punishment and self-depreciation.

Life space interviewing: Theory and concepts

Life space interviewing is a method of talking effectively with students whether it be for personal insight, control or disciplinary purposes or for understanding more completely how the student feels. Redl stresses the necessity of empathetic potential which the teacher/counselor must have to work with students, the subtle capacity to see through and relate to the deeper feelings rather than react to the defensiveness of the student. In other words, no method supercedes the teacher/counselor's capacity for relationship. Redl stated that there are two major categories of Life Space Interviewing: (1) Emotional First Aid on the spot and (2) Clinical Exploitation of Life Events.

In describing these categories, examples are taken from teacher reports at the Rose School, a public psychoeducational center for severely disturbed students in Washington, D.C. administered by the Commission of Mental Health: Children and Youth Services. These examples are included not to *describe the process of L.S.I.*, but to help teachers determine the issues which become the focus of interviews. The following example by a sixth grade teacher illustrates how important the selection of an issue is when working with disturbing and disturbed students.

"During a Language Arts period Charlie was moody, refused help and, as a result, he didn't finish his assignment. After class I informed him that he would have to return to my class during the lunch recess period to complete his assignment. He arrived in a sullen mood. I repeated the work instructions and added that he not only would have to complete his assignment but also he would be required to rewrite the first part of the assignment he completed in class since he wrote it in a messy way. With this statement, he pushed his chair away, looked up angrily and yelled 'the Hell I will,' and stormed out of the room."

When the teacher confronts Charlie what should she select as the major issue? Should it be his unacceptable language, his disappointment at having to give up recess, his anger at having to rewrite all of his lesson or should it focus on the reasons why he was unable to complete the work during the allotted classroom time? Should it be all of these or selected combinations? If so, which issue does the teacher begin with?

Every L.S.I. develops out of an incident which the teacher recognizes and some behavior the student cannot manage on his own. The two categories of L.S.I. depend more on what the teacher feels would be useful for the student rather than the nature of the incident. For example, if the decision is to keep him in class by giving him emotional temporary support, Emotional First Aid is administered. If the decision is to use the incident to clarify a slice of his behavior which is in need of repair, service or change, the interview is called a Clinical Exploitation of Life Events. The distinction between these two categories is not rigid although there is a clear theoretical separation.

Emotional First Aid

While reeducation programs for students are based upon long-term goals, students need immediate help and support when their defenses become ineffective and they find themselves overwhelmed by reality demands and/or internal conflicts. Redl identified five sub-types of this category:

1. Drain-off of frustration acidity: The goal of this interview is to help children manage *reality frustration* which they cannot digest at the moment. This is done by sympathetically listening, identifying and decoding their feelings of anger, distrust, fear or panic regarding cruel and disappointing life events.

I was gypped
"The physical education period was just about over when I blew the whistle and asked the group to stop and put away the trampoline. Bill objected, saying that everybody had three turns except him and that he wasn't going to be gypped. I sympathized with his situation but explained that our time was up and that the best I could do, if he cooperated, was to see that he would be first next time, if he reminded me."

He broke it
"Perry just completed painting his clay horse and was proudly showing it to his classmates when Jim shoved Larry who bumped into Perry causing him to drop his horse which shattered when it hit the floor. Perry became furious and started to attack Larry when I stopped him physically. Perry broke into tears and started to sob."

Perhaps the most common reality frustration that has happened to all teachers occurred when she was about to show a prize film only to have the video cassette break down! In this situation, it probably is the teacher who needs the emotional drain-off.

2. Support for the management of panic, fury and guilt: Often the teacher steps into a situation that is already out of control. The student's level of panic, anger, or anxiety is so high that he is not able to control himself and respond to verbal controls. The goal of this interview is to protect the child and others from his rage and temporary confusion. Occasionally, this calls for physical intervention until the child's own controls are functioning again.

I'm going to get him
"Hearing the screams from the corridor, I entered Mrs. A's room and found Sam and Carl in a wild fight. I told them to stop but Carl was too angry to hear. As I separated them, Carl started to hit me so I had to restrain him physically until he could calm down."

I'm scared!
"I heard a muffled sound in one of the boys' bathrooms and found Charlie hiding in one of the stalls, crying. After comforting him, he was able to tell me that Jim threatened to beat the hell out of him af[illegible] school."

3. Maintenance of communication in moments of relationship decay: After an intense conflict, some students withdraw and become uncommunicative or go into a prolonged anger, sulk and refuse to talk. Unless this defense is penetrated, the world of hostile fantasy can be more destructive to them than the world of reality. The purpose of this interview is to help children short-circuit this response by engaging them in any kind of conversation until they feel more comfortable with their thoughts. Occasionally, gadgets, food and humor are effective ways of thawing students from a frozen hostility.

I'm mad
"Craig was kept after school to complete his arithmetic assignment. He sat at his desk, folded his arms, looked with blazing eyes and said, 'I'm doing nothing and saying nothing so leave me alone.' When I tried to talk to him he covered his ears with his hands."

I'm half-mad
"Martin kept staring out the window all the time I was talking to him. It was clear he decided not to participate in the interview. After many futile attempts, I asked Martin to draw a finger picture on the window pane and I would try to guess it. Halfheartedly he drew a circle which I said was the final score of the last Redskin's football game. With great effort Martin tried to hide his smile."

4. Regulation of social and behavioral traffic: While most students quickly learn the "behavior code of the house" and are astute in describing conflicting adult standards, they often need daily reminding of the classroom rules and regulations if they are to remain in the activity or lesson. The goal of this interview is to provide positive assistance to the student by warning him of the present and subsequent dangers that lie ahead.

"I explained to Phil that in order to stay in the group he would have to keep his hands to himself." "Each day I have to remind Bill that he will earn his points only if he completes his assignments in the allotted time."

5. Umpire service: Only students will cast the teacher in the role of the umpire, particularly when they feel it's to their advantage. Many important therapeutic services are accomplished when the teacher assumes this role to help children settle personal grievances and game violations.

More new rules
"Ralph came to me complaining about Peter. It seems that every time Peter begins losing in chess he introduces a new rule. The latest one was that his father told him that the king can move two spaces in any direction once both castles were taken. I explained to Peter that although special rules can be worked out at home, we follow the standard chess rules at Rose School."

You're out
"A class of ten boys was playing dodge-ball on the playground. One of the rules we agreed on was that if a ball touches any part of the person in the circle, the boy exchanges places with the thrower. In this incident, the ball 'skimmed' Davey's hair. He claimed that he had not been hit but skimmed. When the group demanded that he change places, he turned to me for support only to hear me rule a 'skim' as a hit and that he should have to change places."

Clinical exploitation of life events

After living closely with students, their personal patterns of avoiding pain and maintaining pleasure become apparent. Certain students run away, become ill, develop irrational fears and experience profound guilt over real or imagined acts. Other students become aggressive, blame others for their misfortunes and experience little guilt. While teachers can identify these patterns, most students are unaware of their characteristic ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling and behaving. Unless these patterns are made conscious to the student in a way which encourages insight and trust in teachers, the vicious cycle of stress, feelings, behaviors and adult reactions will result in a destructive power struggle. For many students, it is safer to believe that "the world" picks on them rather than to feel they are "no good" or "stupid." In order to help students find more useful ways of solving problems, Redl outlined the following five types of interviews.

1. Reality Rub: The focus of this interview is to help students reorganize and clarify reality by discussing their blurred, distorted perceptions of a recent life event by identifying what the real issue is and by reinforcing the values of the school. Wineman describes these students as having a social myopia and tunnel vision, the rare capacity to see only the part of an event which is personally threatening.

No one can call my mother names
"After a fight, all Steve could remember was that Bill hit him and called him a 'mothername.' There was no initial recall of his own teasing, provocative behavior which triggered the quarrel."

But I wanted to please
"I noticed that Sally became very depressed after the math test was returned. This perplexed me since she received a score of 90 percent. The next time I looked Sally was crying so I asked her to leave the class with me. After much support, I discovered that she thought I was mad at her. It seems that I told her yesterday to study her homework and perhaps she could get all the problems correct on the exam. Once this misperception was clarified, the interview centered on her desire to please me."

I don't believe you
"After a lot of annoying behavior today, I told the class that no one was to leave his seat without permission for the rest of the period. Within the minute, Martin got up, walked across the room and asked for a Kleenex. When he was told that he knew what he was doing and that he was using the Kleenex as an excuse to test the limit, he protested and said that he only wanted the Kleenex to blow his nose. I told him that there are other ways of getting the Kleenex but that the important issue for him was to find out if I meant what I said and if I could handle his 'Limit Testing' behavior."

Actually, we're friends
While assembling them for lunch, Bill and Steve started a little playful scuffling which took the form of light, openhanded hitting. I warned the two boys that they had better stop before it led to some further trouble but the boys continued. Suddenly, Steve hit Bill somewhat harder than Bill expected. Bill immediately threatened Steve and started after him. Steve ran to the classroom and closed the door. Bill, in rage, tried to force open the door when I went up and grabbed him by the shoulders. Still in a rage, Bill turned his anger on me. Since he couldn't bite, hit or spit, he tried to step on my toes so out of necessity I held him on the floor. After ten minutes he calmed down and I asked him to sit in a chair so we could figure out what happened. After hearing Bill's interpretation I emphasized that Steve was his friend and that the blow was not delivered in anger. After a few minutes I asked Steve to come in so we could discuss the situation from the beginning. By this time Bill was able to understand cause and effect relationships and said that perhaps he got madder than he should. Steve supported him by commenting that he really didn't mean to start a fight. After emphasizing how misunderstanding and fights can take place in a friendship, the boys seemed comfortable and left for lunch together. The rest of the day the two boys got along with no difficulty.

Looking for action
"I noticed that Douglas seemed angry when he entered the classroom. He didn't take off his jacket and started to complain about the written assignment on the blackboard. Realizing that this cue usually indicates that Douglas will have a miserable period, I asked him to talk to me. I commented on his mood and told him that we better get a few things off his chest before he messed up the entire day."

In this last incident the teacher recognized Douglas's nonverbal signal for help and responded by identifying the boy's state of mind, avoided the power struggle over his jacket and the assignment and encouraged him to verbalize his feelings.

2. Symptom estrangement: There are students who have an accurate perception of an event but have little or no concern about their aggressive behavior. In fact, they seem comfortable with their deviant behavior. Unlike other interviews, the purpose of this interview is to create some anxiety about their behavior by highlighting how they justify and enjoy their "righteous aggression." Often these students have developed a highly skilled way of protecting themselves from feelings of guilt by assigning the responsibility and fault on to another boy, school or the entire world. Some of the most common rationalizations they use are:

1. "He did it to me first."
2. "He called me a dirty name."
3. "Everybody else did it too."
4. "I was only kidding."
5. "He had it coming to him."
6. "I had to do it."
7. "I gave him a warning."
8. "Didn't you ever do something like this when you were a little boy."
10. "I was upset today because my mother hit me this morning."
11. "I'm not talking 'cause you won't believe me anyway."
12. "It was an accident."
13. "My dad told me to hit anybody who did that to me."
14. "I have a bad temper, so he should not make me mad."

Often these students are highly verbal and switch from one defense to another until they are successful in confusing and frustrating the interviewer. The first task of the teacher is not to be led astray by the students' verbal camouflage but to focus the interview on the pupils' behavior. His verbal skills are used in order to avoid talking about his feelings and to destroy the effectiveness of the interview. The following examples show how these students deny any responsibility for their behavior.

I knew you wouldn't understand

"Jim reported that someone had taken his model car he had brought to school. After discussing this with the group, the model still couldn't be found. As the group was leaving, I noticed a sizeable lump in Peter's coat which turned out to be Jim's car. During the initial part of the interview Peter showed no guilt over taking the model from his friend and calmly defended his behavior by saying: 1) 'I was planning to return it'; 2) 'He shouldn't have brought it to school in the first place so it's his fault', and 3) 'Someone stole my model about three weeks ago.'"

He deserved it and more

"This incident involved three boys: Dick, age 12; Jim, age 14; and Bob, age 13. The incident took place in the classroom prior to the start of school while I was in the corridor. It seems that Bob took Dick's pencil without asking him, which made Dick angry. He told Bob to return it, which he was doing, when Dick grabbed it out of his hand. Bob reacted by calling Dick a 'queer.' With this insult, Dick started chasing Bob around the room. In the process Bob accidentally bumped into Jim who was drawing at his seat. Jim jumped up, grabbed Bob's hand and squeezed it until Bob dropped to the floor in pain. When Bob was down, Dick came over and kicked him in the ear. Hearing this commotion, I entered the room and found Bob rolling on the floor crying and rubbing his ear. When I asked Jim and Dick what happened they replied that Bob had been teasing them and that he finally got what was coming to him. They showed no initial concern about their cruel tactics but continued to say 'It was his fault, he started it.'"

3. Massaging numb value areas: The issue of this interview is to help students who have internalized feelings of concern and guilt to become more aware of their own self control system and to understand how it breaks down during conflict. The primary goal of this interview is to strengthen these weak controls so they can act as inhibitors (or brakes) for feelings of impulsivity before rather than after tempting situations. Operationally, these children experience guilt at the wrong time and in the wrong proportions. Their guilt is usually felt after the act, which is not helpful to them in preven[illegible] the act, and in such a degree that they often end up seeking punishment. Initially, the teacher is very sympathetic towards these children since they are so distressed and unhappy about their behavior. At the slightest hint, they will promise to be good, write confessions, make new resolutions and shed abundant tears. However, like holding one's breath, their intentions do not last very long. They do not deliberately break school rules and regulations. The problem is that they are easily stimulated, lack adequate self-control and become unproductively guilty. Any teacher technique that creates more shame, remorse and guilt in these students only complicates the problem. The goal is to highlight and magnify their flickering signs of control.

There's a little good in everyone

"During free period Tom talked Doug into helping him let the air out of a car tire in the staff parking lot. Doug was very upset about his behavior and spontaneously commented that it was a dumb thing to [illegible] As we discussed exactly how the incident developed and who had the initial idea, Tom said that Doug refused to go along with him twice before he agreed to help him. With this information, we were able to support Doug by saying that we were pleased to know that he had said 'no' twice since it showed us that a part of him was trying to stop him from doing something that he knew was wrong. We emphasized how this was the part we wanted to strengthen since we were aware that he already was mad at himself."

4. New tools salesmanship: The issue of this interview is to help students who have developed the appropriate attitudes and values (desire for closeness, friendship, help, achievement, etc.) but who have the wrong behavior. The goal of this interview is to help students learn the appropriate social skills that will enable them to attain the social outcomes they desire. This is similar to what is called prosocial behavior.

Strained friendship
"Clark is now trying to make friends with Jim although his only success has been to make him angry. I explained that Jim doesn't like the way he (Clark) teases, pokes and grabs Jim's belongings. We are now working on more appropriate ways of getting Clark to play with Jim that would hopefully result in more pleasure and less pain."

Is this where it hurts?
"Every time Bob wants help with his arithmetic he starts calling out my name. I explained that I was pleased that he wanted my help but the way I would come to his desk would be if he raised his hand and was silent."

In Charles M. Schultz's book, *Good Old Charlie Brown*, there is an excellent description of this category — New Tools Salesmanship. In one cartoon, Charlie Brown was listening to one of his schoolmates, who said, "I was just trying to talk with that little girl up the street but I couldn't say a word. I just *stood* there all embarrassed and confused — I got so self-conscious I didn't know what to do, *so I hit her*."

5. Manipulation of the boundaries of self: The issue of this interview is to help a student see how he is being exploited or used to gratify the wishes of others and/or to point out to the instigator the pleasure and power he obtains by influencing others to act out his wishes. The goal is to explain the quality of their relationship and to demonstrate that friends should help and not hurt each other.

The boy puppeteer
"George was extremely clever in getting Bob to blow up in the classroom. For example, Bob was very touchy today and having trouble completing his assignment, which he thought was difficult. After a few minutes, George said in a loud tone that he was all done because the teacher had given him a very easy assignment. This was all Bob needed to be convinced that he was being treated unfairly and that once again he was being gypped."

The set up
"This incident took place just before the boys were being dismissed for lunch. Three boys (Warren, Jeff and Mark) were standing by the pencil sharpener talking when I heard Warren say to Jeff, 'I bet you could beat up Mark if you wanted.' (This was an obvious bait since Mark was a foot taller and at least 25 pounds heavier than Jeffrey). Mark responded by saying 'Let's see you do it, Jeff, if you aren't afraid!' Not wanting to lose face, Jeff replied with humor and said that he would do it tomorrow. Warren commented, 'Don't be a chicken Jeff, you can do it.' Mark said, 'Come on, let's see if you're strong with a punch in the arm.' Warren seemed pleased by his plan and was encouraging Jeff not to be 'chicken' when I intervened and asked the boys to sit down. After getting a distorted story from all of them, I asked Mark if he was mad at Jeff at 12 o'clock. He said no. I asked Jeff the same question and he answered 'no' too. I then got the boys to pinpoint the exact time they started feeling angry at each other and helped them to see how Warren had set up the fight through his challenge and through his knowledge of how he could get each of them going. While the dynamics of this incident seemed apparent right from the start, I was impressed with Jeff and Mark's lack of insight into Warren's role. Once they put the situation in perspective and discovered how they had been used by Warren, they were unusually verbal and direct in their comments to him. Warren's defense was 'I was only kidding — I didn't think Jeff would really hit Mark.'"

"Because many students are not eager to talk immediately after a crisis, the first step in L.S.I. is to drain off their emotions . . ."

Operational guidelines of a Life Space Interview

To move from theory to practice, Mary Wood has proposed the following six operational steps of a Life Space Interview. While these guidelines may be helpful to the reader in understanding the techniques of a L.S.I., many interviews go through several steps only to have the student regress to step one. With this in mind, the general six steps are offered:

Step one: Focus on the incident
Because many students are not eager to talk immediately after a crisis, the first step in L.S.I. is to drain off their emotions to the point where the students can being to talk about the incident in a rational way. Intensely angry feelings, "shock" words and inappropriate actions are almost always present when you intervene in a crisis and begin a L.S.I. When a student believes that someone will help them control their feelings and when the student can begin to use words instead of being dominated by emotion, L.S.I. can begin and therapeutic gains can be made.

Hopefully, step one is brief. Sometimes it only takes a few minutes. With other L.S.I.s, it may take as much as half an hour to diminish emotional flooding so that a student can begin to talk. If emotional intensity does not diminish to a point where the student can use words, do not go further into L.S.I. Instead, try Emotional First Aid!

Step two: Students in crisis need to talk about the incident
This is an intensely interactive step: The student talks and the adult questions, clarifies and decodes. The exchange between adult and student during this step has two objectives. For the student, there must be a decrease in emotion and an increase in rational words and ideas, organized around the sequence of events — a time line. If this does not occur, the student cannot benefit from the problem-solving phases later in the L.S.I. For the teacher, the objectives are to expand and clarify details about the student's perceptions about the when, where and who of the incident and the events leading up to it. Step two ends when the talk has produced a review of time, place and people

involved in the incident. The teacher has a sufficient understanding of the student's reactions and point of view to begin to focus the following step on a central issue — the actual incident or underlying personal issue.

Step three: Find the central issue and select a therapeutic goal

Step three determines what is really significant in the incident. At the moment of the incident, the student's life space includes both public and private realities. The teacher's job includes both public and private realities. The teacher's job in step three is to sort it all out and make decisions about which reality predominates and what is needed. In short, step three is the decision-making point for selecting the appropriate therapeutic interview: ie. Reality Rub, Symptom Estrangement, New Tools, Massaging Numb Values or Manipulating Body Boundaries. The key processes in step three are to explore the student's view of the incident and underlying anxieties until you have sufficient understanding to (a) concisely state the central issue, (b) assess the student's perceptions, insights and motivation to change behavior, and (c) decide what therapeutic insight or outcome would be effective with the student.

Step four: Choose a solution based on values

This step begins the "how-to-fix-it" part of a L.S.I. There are three questions to be answered during this step:

Will the solution address the incident or the underlying anxiety?

Will the teacher or the student provide the solution?

What will the student see as a satisfactory solution that can be "owned"?

Often there are two solutions to be dealt with: one is the reality issue surrounding the incident and the other is an underlying issue that may have emerged during the previous steps.

When possible, the student should come up with alternative solutions and then select the course of action that seems best. If the student is not able to do this, the teacher/counselor helps the student by providing guidelines, values or rules consistent with the norms of the schools.

Step five: Plan for success

This is the step for realistic planning and rehearsal of what will happen when the solution is actually used to resolve the central issue and to deal with the incident. The focus is on specific behaviors — what to do, when . . ! Both negative and positive aspects are anticipated and a working plan is formed for putting the solution into action.

This step is used to expand the student's understanding of what behavioral changes will be required. The question is, "Will this solution work for the student?" Behind this simple question is the major concern of intervention programs — that there be a carryover effect.

Affirming a student's ability to carry out the plan is essential for success at this step. It is almost always difficult for students to use new behavior and a new approach to a problem. Without practice and abundant encouragement, they tend to fall back on old ways of behaving.

Step five ends when behaviors have been rehearsed, future problem situations have been anticipated and the student has confidence that can change his behavior with support.

Step six: Get ready to resume the activity

The last step in a L.S.I. is the plan for the student's transition back into the group. This step helps the student prepare for reentering and participating in an ongoing activity. It also is important to use this step to close down private topics or feelings brought out during the L.S.I.

The topic shifts in this last step. The incident and the central issue have been put to rest, at least temporarily. A solution has been worked out. Now the discussion centers on where the student will go now as the L.S.I. ends. A discussion of what has happened while the student has been away, what the student will do and how others will react as the student rejoins the group needs to take place. Affirmations of the student's new insights and competence for carrying out the new plan are essen if the student is to be successful.

I must emphasize that Life Space Interviewing is just beginning to be evaluated. There is a great deal to be known about this technique, particularly why it is effective with certain students and ineffective with others. Also, there is a need to examine the extent to which such an interview interferes with the normal teaching process; whether we are irritating some students with talk or overwhelming them with words. Psychologically, the ever-present question is whether the student is consciously aware of his problem or whether his defenses are protecting him from recognizing them. In the latter case, what happens to the student when the interviewer exposes the student's defenses and makes them less effective? How can we select issues that are significant to the student's life that are free from other issues in the classroom? In other words, how can we highlight the student's inappropriate behavior in such a way th he would have difficulty denying it?

These are just a few of the many fascinating questions that can be raised in helping high-risk students learn how to behave and succeed in school.

Conclusion

I feel that the Life Space Interview is an effective technique for talking to high-risk students which is different from moralizing and lecturing. Its effectiveness is directly dependent upon advanced training and the active ability of the staff to mobilize and use all the reality forces available in a school. ■

References

The material for this article is based on two sources, *Direct Help to the Classroom Teacher*, by Nicholas Long, published by the Washington School of Psychiatry in Washington, D.C., in 1966, and *Life Space Intervention: Talking to Children and Youth in a Crisis*, by Mary Wood and Nicholas Long, Pro Ed., Austin, Texas, 1990.

Wright, D. B., Gurman, H. B., & the California Associaton of School Psychologists/Diagnostic Center Positive Intervention Task Force. (1994). Appendix H. Management of antecedents to escalating behaviors. In D. B. Wright, H. B. Gurman, & the California Associaton of School Psychologists/Diagnostic Center Positive Intervention Task Force. *Positive intervention for serious behavior problems* (pp. 243 - 245). Sacramento: Resources in Special Education.

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Appendix H.

Management of Antecedents to Escalating Behaviors

Many inappropriate antecedent behaviors can be redirected in their beginning stages by naturally occurring social interactions between staff members and students. The following techniques and strategies are suggested for use in redirecting the student to more appropriate behaviors.[1] It is important to remember that all interventions must be tailored to the developmental level of the student. The following suggestions are *not* intended to be the sole intervention to increase a positive behavior but rather are to be used to de-escalate or redirect inappropriate behaviors, thus avoiding the need for further emergency interventions as behaviors go further out of control:

- **Planned ignoring.** This is more successful if planned before the behavior occurs. It is most effective when a student is trying to get attention or to provoke staff members, as long as other students are not involved. Not calling on the student to run an errand or ignoring the student while telling several other students what a good job they are doing are examples. It is important to provide a positive reinforcer as soon as a correct behavior is exhibited. *Caution*: Be ready to reinforce the correct behavior the moment it appears. Do not use for severe behavior problems when the maladaptive behavior has begun.
- **Signal interference.** These include nonverbal indications to signal to the student when behavior is beginning to be inappropriate, (e.g., snapping fingers, furrowing eyebrows, holding hand up to show "stop." This is most useful for behaviors that are mild in nature when they have just begun to escalate.
- **Proximity control.** When a student's behavior begins to be disruptive or distracting, the staff member moves close to the student while carrying on the activity with the whole group. No punishment or undue attention needs to be given to the student at the time. Generally, the adult's presence at close range is enough to subdue mild inappropriate behaviors.
- **Interest boosting.** When a student's behavior indicates that he or she is drifting away from attending to the task or activity, some additional information related to the student's interests or experiences is helpful to pique the student's attention and interest in the activity. For example, when leading a discussion about music, the staff member might ask the student about his or her personal stereo equipment to boost the child's interest in the discussion.
- **Tension reduction through humor.** Frequently, a problem or potential problem may be defused with a joke, or a light-hearted comment. Many times anxiety, fear, or a challenge will make the student feel obligated or forced to react negatively. Humor can act as a pressure release valve to allow the student to laugh it off without a negative response. This

works well when the student has responded instinctively in a negative fashion or appears to be wanting to retaliate but is indecisive of whether or how to do so. *Caution*: Satire and ridicule are not appropriate at anytime. The child must correctly read the affectionate aspect of the interaction. Beware of the unintentional reading of an attempt at humor as "ridicule" and plan your humor attempts accordingly.

- **Hurdle help.** The staff member must provide immediate instruction at the very moment the student gets into trouble, to help the student over the hurdle of dealing appropriately with others. A timely comment at the onset of the problem helps the student to follow the correct course of action. For example, a student who has just bunched up a piece of paper and raised his or her arm to throw it is seen by the staff member, who reminds the student to walk to the trash can to throw it away. Timing is essential to intervene before the misbehavior occurs.

- **Restructuring routine.** Routine has a stabilizing effect on everyone. It is important to have a clear understanding of all that we are expected to do and to feel secure that our schedule or routine will allow it. Young people depend on a routine so they can plan their day in their own minds. However, sometimes it becomes clear that the students tire of the routine. Adjusting to energy level provides an opportunity for the student to be refreshed. This should be an occasional shift in routine so as not to disrupt the orderliness of a planned, sequenced routine. For example, rescheduling TV time to allow students to watch a special program after the group has done chores. *Caution:* Many children with severe behavior problems require visual reminders of routines, such as personal schedules of their activities on their desks. Changes should be explained and integrated to any visual tracking system the child is using.

- **Direct appeal to values.** The student is encouraged to make a decision as to whether his or her behavior is helping the situation. One-on-one conferencing to elicit an understanding of how this behavior may be making matters worse and to discover alternate behaviors that can help the student to focus attention on the problem at hand and his or her part in it. A questioning format is most helpful here, beginning with questions that require a "yes" answer (to develop a positive attitude) and phasing in questions that require a more involved answer (e.g., Where did this happen? What did you do then? How do you feel about that? Why do you think he responded that way?). Finally, seek some sort of commitment for continuing a behavior or stopping a behavior next time the problem occurs.

- **The antiseptic bounce.** When a student's behavior indicates a buildup of stress or restlessness, it is a good idea to remove the student in such a way that attention is not focused on the negative behavior. A pass to the office to run an errand is often enough to defuse a potential problem and allow the student to return fresh to the activity. This allows a few minutes away from the problem area without confrontation about behavior and provides enough of a release and a distraction to enable the student to return to the program in a new frame of mind.

- **Distraction.** When a confrontation or a negative behavior is creating a disturbance, focusing the group's attention and/or the individual's attention on something different can reduce or eliminate the problem. A student who is screaming may stop to listen if the staff member begins discussing a topic of interest to the student (e.g., what's for lunch, special events coming up) or if the staff member begins an activity with the other students that the misbehaving student would enjoy. This helps the student to give up the negative behavior by providing an opportunity for the student to make the choice to do so and prevents the staff member from having to use more restrictive intervention models.

- **Infusion with affection.** Often a very positive, supportive, and appreciative approach may help a student to respond more appropriately. A warm, open, caring response from a staff member may help the student to talk about the problems he or she is experiencing before the problems build into a significant incident. An example might be, "I think you probably feel very sad now, and that makes me feel badly, too. Do you think we might walk and be able to talk about what happened?"

- **Interpretation as interference.** A student may not understand or be aware of a behavior that is occurring. Sometimes it is helpful to describe to the student what the or she is doing by commenting on observable behavior. This serves as a reminder and as a warning that the behavior is unwanted. For example, "When you talk while I am talking, not only is it hard for you to listen, but you make it hard for the others to listen, too."

- **Regrouping.** When a student is having trouble within the group, it is often advantageous to move him or her to another group or space (e.g., classroom, living unit, or subgroup within the unit) to avoid continuing problems. This is not a punishing "kick out" but an attempt to offer the student an environment that will help the student maintain control of his or her own behavior. For example, "I think this new location will be better for you and allow you to be in control of yourself better. I can see you're trying."

- **Limitation of supplies and tools.** When a student begins to misuse, abuse, or otherwise cause a problem with tools or supplies, it is advisable to limit continuing access to the material at this time. This requires a calm voice and a supportive stance if de-escalation is desired.

- **Role-modeling.** The most significant management tool available to staff members is conducting themselves in the manner in which the students are expected to behave. Staff members who maintain self-control, respect for others, good manners and courtesy, honesty, fairness, and good judgment teach by example. Students look to adults for models and for guidance, and they learn every day by watching and listening to every word. Students with serious behavior attend to the emotional tone of the speaker often with more concentration than actual words. Clear, calm words are often modeled by other students and immediately diffuse a tense situation (e.g., "Mrs. Walsh says it's not my job to worry about Johnny. My job is ________ right now.").

- **Pacing indicator.** Some students, especially severely handicapped students, lose the ability to use language when protesting an activity choice. Shifting the student to "break time" and asking the student to rejoin the instructional activity when ready can diffuse escalating behaviors. Giving the student an object that signifies break time to that individual and asking for the object (e.g., a felt heart, puppet, small stuffed animal, magazine) to be returned when the student is ready can be useful to de-escalate behavior and provide for choice making.

- **Relaxation activity.** Sometimes severe behaviors can be avoided by training the individual to choose another behavior to express the same purpose as the maladaptive behavior (e.g., stating "I need to lie down" rather than screaming in protest). At first, the student may need modeling, prompting, or guidance to select the alternate relaxing activity. The student should return to the regular routine when he or she determines readiness. Examples include: music, rhymic movement in a rocking chair, covering up with a blanket, and flipping through a magazine.

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[1] Note: Adapted from material developed by Sidney Monroe, Diagnostic Center, Southern California

Fister, S. (1994, Winter). The 1-Minute Skill Builder. *The Best Times*, pp. 3, 6.

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Materials Review: NEW PICKS

– Susan Fister, BEST Project Consultant

The 1-Minute Skill Builder

Many educators are leaving the teaching profession today because of the problems they encounter with difficult students and the subsequent loss of control in their classrooms. Behaviors like arguing failure to follow instructions, or the inability to accept feedback or criticism, coupled with difficult interactions with parents, often result in teachers feeling like failures. The increased time demands involved in dealing with difficult behaviors can significantly reduce the time left for quality instruction.

Minor behavior problems, while disruptive to the classroom, can easily escalate into more severe behaviors. These situations can create a sense of powerlessness on the part of the teacher and dramatically effect their job self-esteem and satisfaction.

The 1-Minute Skill Builder is one alternative for assisting teachers in reducing mild behavior and social skill problems through a positive instructional focus.

Social errors may be the result of skill deficits, that is, the student does not know *how* to perform the behavior. Or, they may be the result of performance problems. In the case of performance problems, students usually *know how* to perform the skill but *choose* not to for some reason.

Just like academic skills, social skills should be dealt with systematically and consistently through the use of a planned *teaching* procedure and a planned *error correction* procedure. The 1-Minute Skill Builder can be used to deal with a variety of compliance problems, and other social skill errors. This intervention, however, is based on the premise that the social skills and the specific steps for performing the skill, have been previously *taught* to the student. Initial teaching of social skills will help to prevent problems which may occur later.

The 1-Minute Skill Builder is a 4-step correction procedure for dealing with social skill errors that do not constitute *severe* infractions. The procedure is designed to take approximately 1 minute and is intended to immediately reduce or correct a student's misbehavior. It does not preclude the use of other appropriate intervention strategies. With training, practice and feedback, almost any adult in the student's environment can learn to effectively use the procedure. When all school staff and parents are using this procedure, there is a greater probability that the student will generalize the skills across settings. The 4-step procedure includes:

Step 1: Expression of Affection.

Step 2: Description of the inappropriate and appropriate behavior.

Step 3: Request for acknowledgement and practice.

Step 4: Feedback .

Several things must occur during Step 1, Expression of Affection. First, the adult moves in on the student, looks at the student, and gets on the student's eye level. Implementing this procedure from across the room or at a considerable distance will not be as effective in getting the student's attention. The student's name should be used during Step 1 and a positive comment should be made regarding an appropriate behavior that *just occurred* or is *now occurring*. For example, "You've really been working hard this morning." "You're not talking right now, nice job..." Throughout this step, the adult should maintain a pleasant and quiet voice tone, pleasant facial expression, and eye contact with the student.

Step 2 of the 1-Minute Skill Builder involves describing the *inappropriate* and *appropriate* behavior. At this point, the adult begins by saying something like, "just then when I gave you an instruction," or "a few minutes ago when I gave you some feedback," or "when you entered the classroom this morning and greeted me..." The teacher is providing the circumstances and labeling the social skill for the student.

Next, the student is provided with specific, descriptive and nonjudgmental information about their inappropriate behavior. For example,

"Erica, now when I gave you an instruction, you turned your head toward me and said, just a second."

or

"Just then when I gave you some feedback on your assignment, you threw your pencil on the floor and said I hate this class."

or

"A few minutes ago when greeted me, you looked down and walked toward your desk and said what's good about it."

Do not say, "Just then when I asked you to sit down." *Rather*, say "Just then when I gave you an instruction..."

Do not say, "A few minutes ago when I said good morning..." *Rather*, say "A few minutes ago when I greeted you..."

It is important to *label the skill* for the student by connecting the specific behavior to the broader social skill area.

During step 2 it is important to avoid statements like "You weren't listening to me," "You are lazy," "You were messing around," "You were ignoring me," "You have a bad attitude," and so on. These kinds of statements are judgmental and are not stated in behavioral terms. They can invite more inappropriate responses from the student which can lead to power struggles.

The next part of step 2 is to clearly state the steps for performing the social skill

(See "1-Minute Skill Builder", page 6.)

1-MINUTE SKILL BUILDER *(cont. from Page 3)*

correctly. This can be based on your own task analysis of the skill or steps taken from a social skills program.

At this point you will say something like this: "What you need to do when someone gives you instructions is to look at the person, acknowledge the person, and do the task immediately" or "A better way to greet someone is to look at the person, smile, and make an appropriate greeting statement like 'Good morning Ms. Wells.'"

Step 3 involves requesting acknowledgement and then practice from the student. To request acknowledgement you can say to the student, "Does that make sense?" "Do you understand?" or "Please say those steps for me." Then, the teacher will request practice. You will say something like, "We're going to do that again," or "I'm going to give you a chance to demonstrate those steps again." Although immediate practice is best, in some circumstances it may be necessary to set up a future practice session. If any errors occur during the practice, the procedure should be repeated, starting over with Step 1.

Step 4 of the 1 Minute Skill Builder involves feedback to the student regarding their successful performance which occurred during the practice in Step 3. Similar to Step 1, the feedback is delivered on the student's eye level, using the student's name, a soft, pleasant voice tone, and a pleasant facial expression. Then, specific descriptive information is given to the student regarding their correct performance of the skill.

The 1 Minute Skill Builder be viewed as a teaching opportunity, *not* harsh punishment. It can be useful for dealing with many errors in social skill performance. It may also be effectively integrated as a component of a classroom or schoolwide behavior management plan.

Occasionally, a student may make additional social skill errors while a 1 Minute Skill Builder is being conducted. If this occurs, many options are available. The teacher may want to move to another appropriate intervention or use a technique called ongoing teaching to deal with the student behavior which is interfering with the 1 Minute Skill Builder.

Ongoing teaching involves the strategic use of pairing behavior descriptions and specific requests, with praise statements. The teacher must get the student back under what is called instructional control. The 1 Minute Skill Builder will not be effective as long as the student is engaged in other inappropriate behavior. If the student's inappropriate behavior is stopped through the use of ongoing teaching procedures, then the teacher can return to the original 1 Minute Skill Builder.

Their are several key points to remember in order to effectively implement the 1 Minute Skill Builder:

1. *Pre-teaching* of important social skills should occur before implementing the 1 Minute Skill Builder.
2. *Consistency* in teacher behavior must be adhered to, each time an error occurs and the procedure is used.
3. The teacher must maintain *low tolerances* of student behavior which deviate from a clearly defined standard.
4. The teacher must maintain a *calm composure* throughout the approach.
5. Social skill errors should be viewed as *positive teaching opportunities*.
6. *High rates of effective praise* must be given to students when they engage in appropriate behavior.

The 1 Minute Skill Builder has proven to be an effective intervention for many students. A short video tape with an accompanying packet is available which demonstrates the process in more detail, along with procedures for assisting those who are interested in implementing the technique. For information on obtaining the 1 Minute Skill Builder Video Tape, contact: ***Education 1st***,1930 Sheridan Road, Salt Lake City, UT 84108, (801) 582-4070.

Jones, V. (1994, April). *Developing student responsibility*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Council for Exceptional Children, Denver, CO.

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NECESSARY COMPONENTS OF A PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN

PURPOSE:

TO TEACH A STUDENT THE SKILLS NECESSARY FOR RESPONSIBLE BEHAVIOR

PROCESS:

The student is included in the development of the plan!!!

The PEP is a living process; to be reviewed and revised as needed.

The effectiveness of the plan is enhanced if all staff who have responsibility for managing the student are included in developing the plan. Involving the parents is also preferable.

CONTENT:

Clear expectations for positive student behavior are specified in the plan.

The plan includes an instructional component (e.g. social skills training) in which the student learns to make alternative and more responsible choices.

Positive and negative consequences are clearly delineated.

A person is identified to coordinate, review and revise the plan, as needed.

Vernon Jones
April, 1994

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN

Purpose of Personal Educational Plan (PEP):

A Personal Educational Plan is a means of helping school staff, students, and parents clarify and agree upon behavioral expectations of students, their choices for meeting those expectations and the consequences (positive and negative) for meeting or for failing to meet those expectations. In contrast to verbal or "unspoken" agreements and contracts, such a written contract can:

- Minimize the lack of clarity which can be manipulated to sabotage the agreement.
- Greatly increase each person's personal sense of ownership and investment in the agreement, each having participated in it's development and committed to it in writing.
- Provide a concrete measure of progress which can increase the student's sense of control and success and minimize uncertainty and subjective evaluation by staff.
- Minimize the number of judgement calls, since adults need only follow through with applying the agreed-upon rules and consequences, and involve the student in revision of the contract when weaknesses become apparent. Conversely, when students experience expectations as vague, understand a limited repertoire of choices, and believe consequences to be unpredictable, inconsistent, and under the control of others, their sense of personal control and responsibility is minimized.

When to Use a Personal Educational Plan:

A PEP may be indicated when a student who is not on a behavioral IEP needs additional instructions and clarification about expectations and choices, and the support of individualized consequences to increase their motivation to choose to meet those expectations.

While a teacher may choose to use a PEP for a student in a single class, success tends to be significantly increased by the consistency provided by the involvement of other staff and application of the PEP among classrooms and across settings.

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN: SPECIFIC GUIDELINES

Personal Educational Plan Monitor:

Name staff member who has agreed to oversee contract development, application and review. (The monitor should be someone significantly involved in the student's overall educational plan.)

Reason for Personal Educational Plan:

Specify the behavior(s) that interfere with the student's educational development or the educational development of others. (Be as specific as possible in describing behavior(s), i.e. under what circumstances, frequency, history, etc.) Only behaviors which the contract will address need be described.

Student Expectations:

1. Include student in clarifying behavioral expectations.
2. Make expectations behaviorally specific.
3. State expectations in the positive, indicating what student is expected to do.
4. Verify that the expectations are clearly understood by the student.
5. Make sure all expectations are enforceable by the staff on a consistent basis.

Student Choices:

1. Request student participation in developing a list of responsible choices which they can make to meet expectations. (Example: "What are some responsible choices that could be made when another student comes up and wants to start fighting?")
2. Help student list as many appropriate choices as possible.
3. Ask the student to list examples of irresponsible choices or ways to deal with problem situations that would result in negative consequences.
4. Remind students that their behavior reflects their choice.

Student Consequences:

1. Request student participation in determining meaningful consequences for meeting or failing to meet expectations. (Example" What do you think should happen if...?")
2. List consequences that occur naturally in the environment and try to develop applied consequences that are logical. Discuss with the student the inherent fairness of the consequence and exactly what the results of their choices will be.
3. Specify only those consequences that can be applied or expected to occur consistently.

4. If developing consequences to be carried out at home, the above instructions still apply. (Although defining consequences at home is optional, such a process may increase the effectiveness of the contract by enhancing communication with parents and by providing further consistency across settings. Additionally, it is sometimes difficult to find meaningful, logical consequences within the school environment alone.)

Personal Educational Plan Monitor Agrees To:

List any other monitor actions which the student and monitor agree about which may enhance student cooperation. (Example: "Monitor agrees to discuss student's inappropriate behavior in private rather than in front of the class.")

Personal Educational Plan Termination Criteria:

Clearly define exactly what the student needs to do to have the contact terminated. (Termination criteria can be related to meeting expectations, i.e. "80% of the time for 2 consecutive weeks", or can be related to consequences, i.e. earning positive consequences: "4 out of 5 days for 3 consecutive weeks".)

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN

TEACHER SURVEY

Student:______________________________ Date:_______________

Person Originating the Process:______________________________

Statement of Concern:______________________________

What (if any) goals would you see as important for this student to assume responsibility and achieve academically? (Please list in order of importance.)

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

Your Name:______________________________

Relationship to Student:______________________________

Would you be available and willing to:

a. Be on a PEP team?______________________________

b. Be a PEP monitor for this student?______________________________

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN

Name of Student:______________________________ Grade:_________ Date:___________

School:______________________________________

PEP Facilitator:______________________________________

PEP Team:____________________ ____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________ ____________________

****

Goal of Personal Education Plan:______________________________________

____

EXPECTATIONS FOR RESPONSIBLE STUDENT BEHAVIOR

In addition to classroom and school rules, expectations requiring additional instructions, clarification and assistance:

A.

B.

C.

D.

PEP PROCESS

PEP Facilitator(s) agrees to:

1. Collect and share information with the student, parent and PEP team.
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

TIMELINE: Staff: ______________________________

Student: ______________________________

PEP Team agrees to:

1. Consistently apply stated consequences for both responsible and irresponsible behavior.
2. Provide information to PEP Facilitator regarding the efforts of the student and the effectiveness of the plan.
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

TIMELINE: ______________________________

Parent agrees to:

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

Student agrees to:

1. Work with the PEP team to develop and participate in the plan.
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

* * *

PEP Facilitator Signature: ______________________ Date: __________

Parent Signature: ______________________ Date: __________

Student Signature: ______________________ Date: __________

Name of Student: ______________________________

EXPECTATION A: ______________________________

Responsible Choices - - - - - - - > Positive Consequences:

Assistance Offered:

Irresponsible Choices: - - - - - - > Negative Consequences

Assistance Offered:

initials ☐

Name of Student: ______________________________

EXPECTATION B: ______________________________

____

Responsible Choices - - - - - - ->	Positive Consequences:
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________
Assistance Offered:	
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________

Irresponsible Choices: - - - - - ->	Negative Consequences
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________
Assistance Offered:	
____________	____________
____________	____________
____________	____________

initials ☐

Name of Student:

EXPECTATION C:

Responsible Choices -------> **Positive Consequences:**

Assistance Offered:

Irresponsible Choices: ------> **Negative Consequences**

Assistance Offered:

initials ☐

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN
REVIEW - REVISION - TERMINATION

	DATE	WHO INVOLVED	NOTES/CHANGES MADE
Reviews:			
Revisions:			
Termination:			

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN

Name of Student: Holden Caulfield Grade: 6 Date: 2/15/92

School: Everywhere Elementary

PEP Facilitator: Hugh M. Bean

PEP Team:	Classroom Teacher	Educational Assistant	Music Teacher
	Counselor	Principal	Parents
	Resource Teacher	PE Teacher	

****

Goal of Personal Education Plan: To encourage Holden to be able to assume responsibility for himself and benefit from school.

EXPECTATIONS FOR RESPONSIBLE STUDENT BEHAVIOR

In addition to classroom and school rules, expectations requiring additional instructions, clarification and assistance:

A. Remain on task during class and turn in all assigned work.

B. Manage anger and frustration in a responsible manner.

C. Gain attention from others in an appropriate manner.

D. Termination criteria is to meet the requirements of the PEP 85% of the time for 4 consecutive weeks.

PEP PROCESS

PEP Facilitator(s) agrees to:

1. Collect and share information with the student, parent and PEP team.
2. Convene staffing to sign PEP.
3. Review contract with Holden weekly.
4. Reinforce Holden and communicate with his parents.

TIMELINE: Staff: Survey Staff - Within one week.

Student: Meet with Holden up to three times within 10 days to draw up PEP and weekly thereafter.

PEP Team agrees to:

1. Consistently apply stated consequences for both responsible and irresponsible behavior.
2. Provide information to PEP Facilitator regarding the efforts of the student and the effectiveness of the plan.
3. Complete daily communication sheet.
4. Encourage Holden with social reinforcers.

TIMELINE: Complete survey within one week and respond to daily communication form.

Parent agrees to:

1. Follow through on daily and weekly communication.
2. Talk with Holden about school behavior.
3. Contact school staff if we have concerns.
4. Encourage Holden.

Student agrees to:

1. Work with the PEP team to develop and participate in the plan.
2. Try and do the stuff.
3. Work to meet the goals for four weeks.
4. Carry the daily communication home and talk with parents.

****

PEP Facilitator Signature:______________________________ Date:____________

Parent Signature:______________________________ Date:____________

Student Signature:______________________________ Date:____________

Name of Student: Holden

EXPECTATION A: Do my work and give it to my teacher.

Responsible Choices - - - - - - ->	Positive Consequences:
Ask to get up	Get my work done
Watch my teacher	Stay with my friends
Listen when I'm supposed to	Earn free time in resource room
Work when I'm supposed to	Earn free time in my class
Ask for help	Stay out of trouble
Turn in work	Teacher and parents happy
Assistance Offered:	
Teacher will respond to hand raised	Communication sheet
Problem-solving sheets	
Changed seat	
Daily communication	

Irresponsible Choices: - - - - - ->	Negative Consequences
Walking about	Get time out
Bug people	Teacher will be mad at me
Bring stuff (toys) to school	Mom and Dad will be upset
Give up	Lose free time
Draw and play	Lose recess
Put work in desk	Other kids mad at me
Assistance Offered:	
Help with time out	
Communication sheet	
Verbal warning	

initials

Name of Student: Holden

EXPECTATION B: Stop yelling at other people.

Responsible Choices ------->

- Talk to somebody
- Take a time out
- Walk away
- Leave people alone
- Ask for help
- Write stuff down

Assistance Offered:

- Listen when asked for help
- Look for positive behavior
- Offer help
- Daily communication

Positive Consequences:

- Make friends
- Stay on playground
- Stay in class
- Feel better
- Get off this thing

Irresponsible Choices: ------>

- Start yelling
- Fight, shame, hit or kick
- Cuss at kids
- Break rules because I'm mad
- Run out of room

Assistance Offered:

- Give you room
- Talk with you about problems
- Verbal warning
- Daily communication

Negative Consequences

- Lose friends
- Do problem sheet
- Go to time out
- Go home maybe
- Parents and teachers upset with me

initials

Name of Student: Holden

EXPECTATION C: Act right and get along with kids.

Responsible Choices ------->	Positive Consequences:
Smile and say nice stuff	Make and keep friends
Ask kids to do things	Be happy
Take turns and share	Stay in class
Sit by kids and be nice	Keep my recess
Find ways to make friends	Eat lunch with others

Assistance Offered:

Tell you about positive things
Talk to all kids about being nice
Daily communication

Irresponsible Choices: ------>	Negative Consequences
Put kids down	Lose my friends
Hurt kids	To time out
Make kids do what I want	Lose my recess
Talk to kids when they are working	Feel lonely
Cuss and call kids names	Do problem sheet
Mess up games	

Assistance Offered:

Verbal warning
Talk to kids about recess rules
Daily communication sheet

initials ☐

PERSONAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN
REVIEW - REVISION - TERMINATION

	DATE	WHO INVOLVED	NOTES/CHANGES MADE
Reviews:	2/21	Holden, Mr. & Mrs. Caulfield, Hugh Bean	
	2/27	Holden, Hugh Bean	
	3/4	Holden, Hugh Bean	
	3/11	Holden, Hugh Bean	
	3/18	Holden, Mr. & Mrs. Caulfield, Hugh Bean	
Revisions:			
Termination:			

DAILY COMMUNICATION FORM

Holden Caulfield
Student

Date ______________________

	AM	AM	PM	PM	RR	LIB	REC
On Task							
Manage Anger							
Getting Attention							

+ = Improved
* = Acceptable
o = Unacceptable

Parent Signature______________________

Point Cards. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 177). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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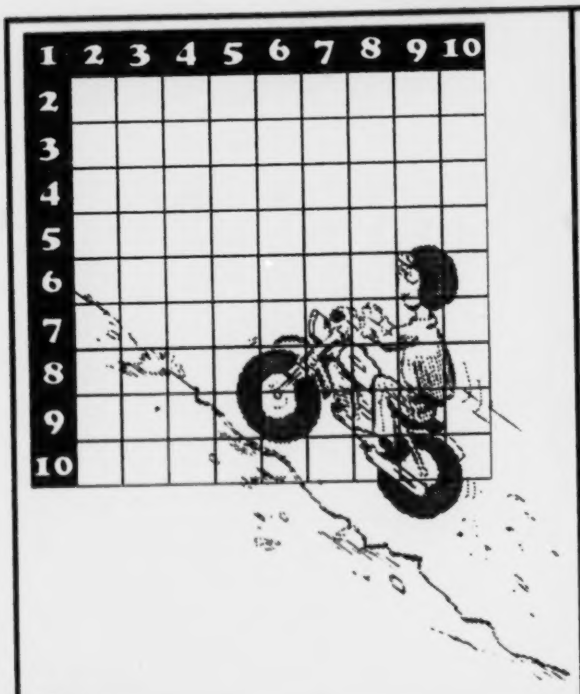
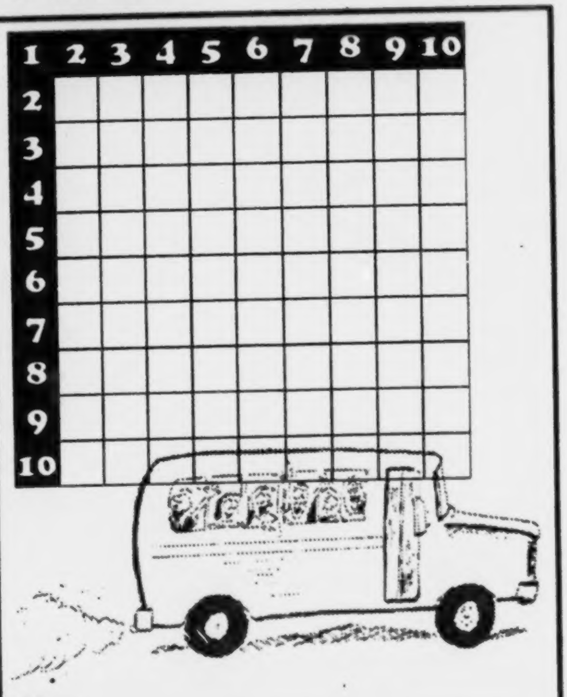
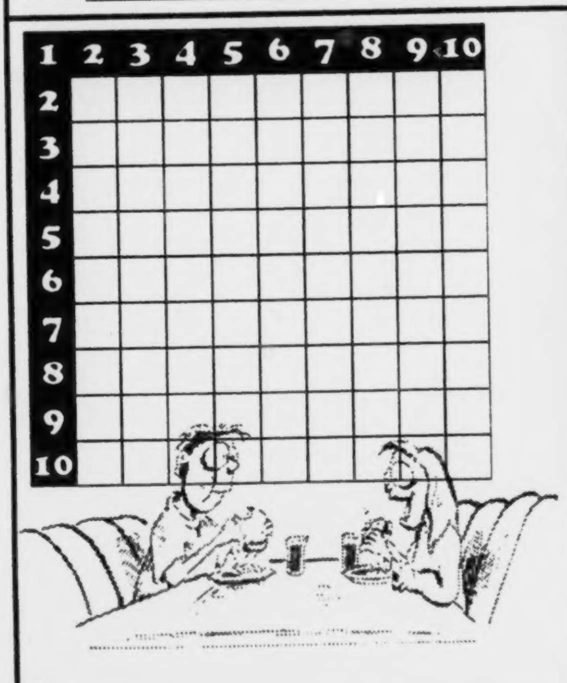
Point Cards



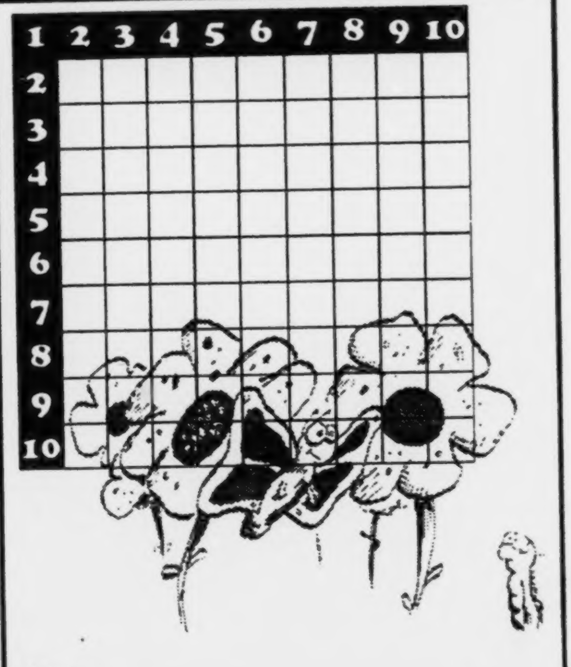
Name________________________________



Name________________________________



Name________________________________



Name________________________________

Classroom bank points. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 179). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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Classroom Bank Points

Name	MON	TUE	WED	THUR	FRI	Total

Reavis, K. H., Kukic, S. J., Jenson, W. R., & Morgan, D. P. (1993). Advertising for success: Improving motivation. In K. H. Reavis, S. J. Kukic, W. R. Jenson, & D. P. Morgan. *Technical Assistance Manuals* (p. 1 - 11). Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.

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Advertising for Success: Improving Motivation

Objectives

By the end of this module, you will know:
- ✓ What advertising for success is.
- ✓ What makes advertising for success effective.
- ✓ How to implement an advertising for success system.
- ✓ Cautions when using an advertising for success system.

Introduction

Advertising for success (also known as public posting) is an intervention that may be used to enhance academic motivation and decrease disruptive behaviors. Advertising for success primarily involves the display of academic progress scores or behavior measures on a bulletin board or blackboard. The academic measures can include such items as scores on papers, test scores, points earned for academic work, the number of assignments completed, percentage of assignments completed, contributions made in class, and other measures. Behavior measures can include such items as on-task behavior, being on time to class, being prepared to work, the number of warnings received for inappropriate behaviors, appropriate transitions from class to class, and so on.

Is Advertising for Success Effective?

Advertising for success is well represented in the Effective Schools Literature. This literature has been compiled and reviewed by a number of researchers interested in the differences between effective and ineffective schools (Jenson, Sloane, & Young, 1988; Purkey & Smith, 1983;). A list of the characteristics of effective schools is provided below:[1]

1. There is school-wide recognition of academic success.
2. Basic academic subjects are emphasized.
3. Clear goals and high expectations are maintained for *all* students.
4. There is a school-wide sense of order and discipline.
5. Teachers reward, praise, and recognize student performance.

6. The school principal provides strong leadership, which filters down through the teaching staff to the students.
7. The principal supports and encourages the staff.
8. The school has a monitoring system that reports student progress.
9. Teachers, principals, and parents are kept aware of pupils' progress relative to school objectives.
10. The amount of time students spend on engaged academic tasks is high (minimum 70%).
11. Teachers set the stage for learning at the beginning of the school year.
12. Teachers prepare students for independent inquiry and study.
13. There is widespread support from the school staff, parents, and students regarding school norms for behavior.
14. Teachers use a variety of discipline strategies for managing disruptive behavior.
15. Teachers create an environment that *models* high learning expectations.
16. Teachers are able to motivate children.
17. Teachers use a classroom system of rules.
18. Teachers optimize learning time.
19. Teachers move around the room, are aware of what is going on, and use a system of spot checking.
20. Teachers handle disruptive behavior in a low-key manner.

It is important to note that items #1-There is school-wide recognition of academic success and #8-The school has a monitoring system that reports student progress directly relate to these systems. Posting the academic success of students provides schoolwide recognition and facilitates monitoring and reporting of student progress.

Academic increases also result from advertising for success. For example, advertising for success has been used to improve performance in the following studies:

1. Fourth graders, science test scores—errors were reduced from approximately 27 percent to 7 percent (Thorpe & Darch, reported in Van Houten, 1980).

2. Second graders, number of words written—mean words written increased from approximately 5 per minute to 10 per minute (Van Houten, Hill, & Parsons, 1975).

3. Special education students (EMR 8 to 12 years old), mean math lesson completed each day—increased from approximately .69 to 1.3 lessons per day through team advertising for success (Van Houten & Van Houten, 1977).

4. Fifth graders' mean number of questions answered correctly about the stories in their readers—increased from approximately 4 to 8 with team advertising for success (Van Houten, 1980).

5. High school, biology test performance—increased from an average of 55 percent to 73 percent with advertising for success, verbal praise, and immediate feedback (Van Houten & Lai Fatt, 1981).

Other suggested areas for academic advertising for success include spelling scores, basic number facts, hand writing samples, story writing, math calculations such as long division, physical education activities, classroom verbal contributions, completed homework assignments and others (Van Houten, 1980).

Advertising for success has also been used to reduce disruptive classroom behavior and improve on-task classroom performance. Lyman (1984) has specifically used advertising for success and goal setting to improve the on-task behavior of elementary age (11 to 13 years), behaviorally disordered boys. All of the subjects were identified as conduct disordered and displayed such behaviors as noncompliance, aggression, truancy, and property destruction. The study took place in a self-contained classroom at a treatment center. The treatment initially involved having the boys set their own goals for on-task behavior and write it privately on a index card which the teacher kept at her desk. The effects were not impressive. However, when the boy's goals were transferred to an advertising for success chart there was a large increase in on-task behavior (from 50 percent to 75 percent). Clearly, public posting of the goals was a critical variable for improving on-task behavior.

In a similar study, Jones and Van Houten (1985) used public posting of daily quiz results in Science and English to manage disruptive behavior in three junior high school classrooms. The quizzes were simple five question tests (true or false, fill in the blank, or multiple choice) on the subject content and were administered during the last five minutes of each class. It is interesting to note that at no time was there a posting of disruptive behavior. At first, data on disruptive behavior was collected only when quizzes were started. This produced a reduction in disruptive behavior in classes 1 and 3, but not 2. With the introduction of advertising for success, students were told that the purpose of the chart was to see if each student could exceed his previous best daily and weekly score. The scores were recorded on a large wall chart in black grease crayon. With the introduction of public posting of quiz results, there was a large reduction in disruptive behavior (from approximately 40 percent disruptive behavior to 10 percent disruptive behavior) without implementing additional disciplinary procedures for disruptive behavior.

What Makes Advertising for Success Effective?

Whether it is used for improving academics or behavior, there are a number of essential components that must be present in order for advertising for success to be effective.

First, the basic component of all public posting systems involves some type of visual feedback system. This must be something students can see from their desks. A large bulletin board, marks on the blackboard, or a plastic (acetate or laminated) covered poster board are all good places to post visual feedback systems.

Second, the advertising for success system needs accurate and meaningful information that can be displayed. This requires some systematic method of gathering information. The more delayed the information or the less accurate the information, then the less effective the public posting system. There are several efficient techniques that will be discussed later in this module on how to collect meaningful information for display. However, collecting relevant information is the key to advertising for success.

Since most advertising for success systems have no tangible reward or reinforcement associated with the student's performance, the reaction of others (particularly peers) is very important. Engineering reactions is a skill that needs to be mastered by teachers using an advertising for success system.

Conscientious teachers can readily collect this information and use it in an advertising for success system.

The third component of an advertising for success system is the engineered reaction to the information. This aspect can be critical to the success or failure of the system. What is meant by an engineered reaction are the responses of teachers, aide, the principal, and peers to the information included in a advertising for success system. Since most advertising for success systems have no tangible reward or reinforcement associated with the student's performance, the reaction of others (particularly peers) is very important. Engineering reactions is a skill that needs to be mastered by teachers using an advertising for success system. Details on this skill will be given later in this module.

Steps for Implementing Advertising for Success

The steps for implementing an advertising for success system have been described in a book entitled, Learning Through Feedback: A Systematic Approach for Improving Academic Performance (Van Houten, 1980). The following steps for implementing an advertising for success system were abstracted from this book and other supporting material.

Step 1: Select a visual feedback system that is prominently displayed in a classroom. The system should be large enough to be seen by students sitting at their desks. For example, the lettering of names and performance information or data should be at least 3 centimeters high. The chart should also display a week's worth of data (Monday through Friday) with the highest weekly score (see the example below). The charts should be erasable so they can be re-used each week. A poster board covered with a plastic film or lamination is best. It is also very important to keep the visual feedback system simple. The more complex the system, the less it will be used by students. Too much information, small graphs, or complex measures will reduce the effectiveness of advertising for success.

Step 2: Decide on a positive measure. It is important to post improvements in academics and behavior. The research has shown that posting positive improvements is much more effective than posting measures that indicate poor performance or inappropriate behavior. A positive measure is also one in which a student is compared against his or her own performance and not the performance of other students. If students are routinely compared against

The research has shown that posting positive improvements is much more effective than posting measures that indicate poor performance or inappropriate behavior.

each other, then the poorer performing students will find the procedure punishing.

Step 3: Decide on meaningful and precise daily measure. For example, measures such as number of problems completed, percentage of improvement, points earned for appropriate behavior, or words read are all good measures. Global measures or information that is dependent on guess work is poor information to publicly post.

Step 4: Give feedback immediately. The longer a teacher waits to give feedback to a student, the less effective the advertising for success system will be. Feedback should be given as soon as possible.

Step 5: Develop a system to effectively score student's work so that it can be posted immediately. The usual reason that feedback is delayed to students is that teachers do not have time to immediately grade or evaluate academic work. A way to overcome this problem is to use student graders or self-grading. Research has shown that self-grading can also be effectively used in a classroom and that students learn even more from self-grading (Van Houten, 1980) than from having someone else grade their work.

Method 1: Give the students specially colored pencils or pens that can only be used for grading when the answers are given orally to the group by the teacher. Any student using a regular pencil during grading can be readily identified as cheating. The teacher may also randomly sample some of the papers and grade them for accuracy after the students have graded them.

Method 2: Set up grading stations in the classroom with the answer sheets and a special red pencil for grading. The student is allowed only to bring his/her answer sheet to the grading station. No pencils or other papers are allowed.

Method 3: Have students exchange papers and put their initials at the bottom of the paper as a grader. It will also help to have students rotate the papers, once, twice, or three times so the student does not know who is grading his/her paper. Again, a teacher can randomly grade three or four papers as a reliability check.

Step 6: Give positive differential feedback rather than feedback for an absolute level or near perfect goal. With positive differential feedback, students post improvements against their own best scores and not a predetermined criteria. For example, if a student's best score for completing math problems any day during the present week is 20 and his/her best score ever for any week is 35, then these scores would be posted as follows:

Student	Mon.	Tue.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Best Day	Best Week
John Doe	15	13	20	18	—	20	35

In this way, students compete against themselves.

Step 7: The teacher should praise improvements on the advertising for success chart. This is what makes the information meaningful and reinforcing to students. The teachers should use descriptive praise statements such as, "John-what a performance! You beat your best weekly score again!", or, "Susan is getting better and better, she did six more problems today!" Poor praise statements are global statements such as "Good job, keep it up" or "Nice improvement."

It is also important to praise students who are having difficulty, but are improving. Small steps are particularly important to these students, and their performance should always be compared to themselves (e.g., "Wow, Timmy is really doing a great job. If you look at his chart, he has improved each day. I have to keep changing his Best Day score.").

Group praise is also effective if it is used descriptively and does not single out students who are having difficulty. Good group praise statements are, "This is impressive; six students in this class beat their previous best scores," or, "What a hot class, you beat your total class best score again—what a bunch of pros."

It is a good idea for teachers to set goals for the number of praise statements that he or she will make during each day about the publicly posted information. For example, a teacher may set the minimum number of praise statements at 10 for himself and 5 for the classroom aide. This may seem artificial at first; however, it will eventually pay off. It helps to post the number on the blackboard, with only the teacher and aide knowing what the numbers mean. Research has shown that when teachers publicly post the number of praise statements they make, the number goes up (Gross & Ekstrand, 1983).

> *If students compete against themselves and not each other, research indicates that spontaneous student comments will be positive.*

Step 8: Encourage peer comments and interaction about the publicly posted information. If students compete against themselves and not each other, research indicates that spontaneous student comments will be positive (Van Houten, 1980). However, if students compete against each other, the chances of negative or counter-productive comments increase. A teacher can also foster positive student comments in the following ways:

Method 1. Acknowledging student's comments is a good way to increase positive peer statements. For instance, a student (John) might say, "Timmy beat his best score." The teacher's remarks might be, "John you are sharp for noticing; Timmy is doing a great job."

Method 2. Amplifying a student's positive comment by adding information. For example, a student might say, "Charlie really did a good job today." The teacher might comment, "He did an additional 12 problems and beat his own best score."

Method 3. Praising a student for making positive comments about other students. A teacher might say to a student who has just made a positive comment, "Susan, you are terrific at noticing how well others are doing on the chart. Your comments make everyone feel good."

Method 4. Using confederates to stimulate peer comments about publicly posted information.

For example, a teacher may directly ask two or three popular students in the class to make positive comments about how other students are doing. The teacher should stress that the comments should be sincere and realistic. Having socially valued, popular peers make comments is contagious, and other students will start to make positive comments.

While the eight basic steps for designing and operating an advertising for success system have been detailed above, there are several advanced techniques that can improve the effects of a well designed and implemented advertising for success system even further.

Advanced Technique 1: Add a tangible reinforcer for students who have improved their scores. This seems simple, but remember the advertising for success system that has been presented so far in this module has only used teacher and peer praise as reinforcement for improvement. Mystery motivators, spinners, grab bags, or treasure boxes can be used randomly to reinforce students. For instance, a student can be selected at random from students who have posted improvements for a particular day. The randomly selected student then receives the daily mystery motivator (a sealed envelope posted at the front of the class with a reinforcer written on a slip of paper in it).

Caution: It is important to select an improving student at random. Do not make the reinforcer dependent on the biggest gain. If the reinforcer is given only to students making the biggest gain, then students having more difficulty but who are improving will be punished.

Singling students out for advertising for success because they are doing poorly can be a punishing experience.

Advanced Technique 2: Some teachers have difficulty grading papers and posting all the students' work each day. To solve this problem, the teacher can post a chart with several spaces for students' names and randomly select students at the end of the day to have their work graded and the information posted. With this technique, students are never sure who will have their work posted so all students work hard to have their work posted.

Van Houten's report of Thorpe and Dardi's study (1980) describes a random selection technique in which one fourth grade student's daily science test was randomly selected and scored by the teacher. The test was posted on the board in front of the class if it had no more than one error. If there were more than one error, the student remained anonymous and no test was posted. Errors dropped dramatically with this technique from an average of 28 percent to less than 10 percent.

It is important to randomly select students for posting. Singling students out for advertising for success because they are doing poorly can be a punishing experience.

Advanced Technique 3: Classrooms can be divided into teams and average team results can be posted. For example, three students sitting at a table for math can be designated as a team. At the end of each math period, the student can exchange papers with each other or even another team for grading. The amount of each assignment correctly completed (number of problems) can be averaged and the team's performance can be posted along with their Best Daily Score and Best Weekly Score. A team approach does not require that individual names be posted, but only a team name. However, both team and individual performance can be posted together.

Van Houten and Van Houten (1977) used individual versus individual plus team advertising for success with elementary age special education students. They found that team posting was superior to individual posting, but that both approaches improved performance. In using individual posting the increase was from .69 math assignments to .84 reading assignments completed, an increase of 22 percent. However, when team and individual results were posted, the increase was from .69 reading assignments to 1.30 reading assignments, an increase of 61 percent. Interestingly, the percentage of spontaneous positive remarks made by the students about the reading work jumped from a baseline of 0 to 31.7 comments per day.

Advanced Technique 4: An even more powerful application of advertising for success is to combine it with a team based group contingency. With a group contingency, the classroom is divided into teams as described above; however, a reward or contingency is added for team performance. This technique was used effectively with 254 primary and middle students who displayed high rates of misbehavior (swearing, gum chewing, entering school without permission, talking back, running in hallways, loitering, kicking, fighting) (Hollan & McLaughlin, 1982). Each class was given 10 points each day (each class formed a team). If a student misbehaved, he or she lost one point from his class's total. The publicly posted information was the points remaining and the misbehavior that had caused a point loss. If a class had 45 points at the end of the week, they were declared Class of the Week (more than one class could win) and given a large class ribbon, certificates, their class picture was posted above their class point total in the hallways, and the winners were announced on the public address system. The class that won Class of the Week most over the entire study's length of time was also given a free lunch. The results showed that before the intervention the primary grade students had 31 inappropriate behaviors; this dropped to 4 after the intervention was started. Similarly, the intermediate age students had an average of 33 misbehaviors before the intervention and only 5 after the intervention.

Group contingencies are powerful techniques. In particular, when group contingencies are used with advertising for success, only team scores should be posted. The teacher should be absolutely sure that all the students on the team can perform the required academic or behavioral task. Group contingencies are best used when a student has learned a new behavior and needs to practice it (maintenance). Group contingencies are much less effective when a student is still learning how to perform the behavior but has not quite mastered it (acquisition). In addition, the group contingency should be designed so that all the teams can win and the contingency is primarily a positive procedure. The teacher can tell if the procedure is positive by asking: (a) Do a variety of teams win the contingency often? and (b) Do the students make positive comments to each other about their performance, or are they singling out a few students for ridicule?

Cautions

A visual feedback system, meaningful information, and positive reactions to the information are the essential components of advertising for success. Even though all of these elements exist in all classrooms as untapped resources, some teachers are reluctant to use advertising for success systems. For example, some teachers may express a concern that students will feel uncomfortable if their work is displayed. The research shows that most students prefer an advertising for success system if it is used correctly (Van Houten, 1980). It is important to post positive information if possible. The more negative the information, the less effective the system will be.

Other teachers are worried that slower learners will be exposed and negatively affected by the system. Students already know who are the fast and slow learners in a classroom (this is particularly true if teachers ability group—i.e. blue bird and black bird reading groups). If an advertising for success system is designed correctly, the posting system can be used to enhance the self-esteem of slow learners. In fact, research shows that students in the bottom half of a classroom academically benefit and improve most by the system (Van Houten, 1984).

Some teachers express a concern about legal issues associated with advertising for success. While some caution is in order, posting student's papers and work has been going on in classrooms for decades. However, posting should not be used to humiliate a student or display only negative information. It is also a good idea for the teacher to inform parents at Back-To-School Night how he/she plans to operate the posting and emphasize that it is a positive system. The teacher will want to explain that he/she will not be posting academic grades, but rather improvement or the number or amount of assignments completed.

The principal's permission and support should also be obtained. For example, the principal may be asked to come into the classroom periodically and look at or make comments about the advertising for success systems. One principal went so far as to take a Polaroid picture of a student who had done exceptionally well academically and behaviorally from each classroom in the school. Each picture with an appropriate label such as "Incredible Worker", or, "One of the Best On-Task Kids" was then posted outside of the office in the main school foyer.

If the teacher is concerned about posting names, secret number codes can be assigned instead. One study showed that posting academic progress by code is just as effective for secondary students as posting by name (Van Houten, 1984).

Case Study

Performance can also be enhanced by using an advertising for success system that displays several behaviors and academic skills for a whole class instead of only one behavior or skill for individual students. For example, the rectangles displayed on the next page represent four classroom rules pertaining to: (1) correct transition time, (2) accuracy of following directions, (3) work completed, and (4) no more than one warning. These behaviors are tracked for the class for the academic subjects of math, reading, and spelling. If the class performs appropriately during an academic period for each of the four behaviors, a plus (+) is placed in each area. If misbehavior occurs, then a minus (-) is placed in that particular area. The advantage of this system is the simplicity of posting for the whole class across several behaviors. The publicly posted behaviors in this example represent the standard class rules, and the teacher can combine the advertising for success system with an incentive system.

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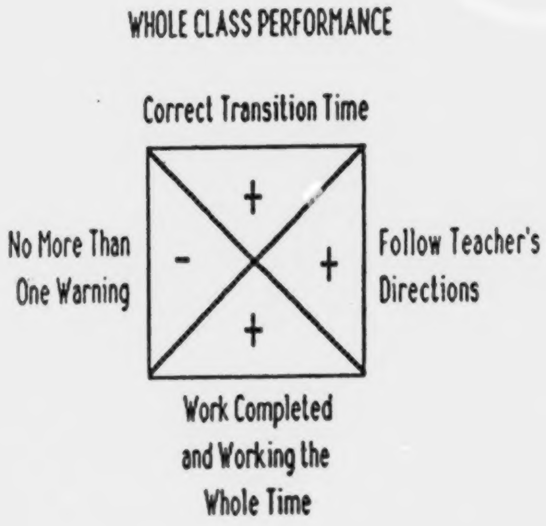
Class Rules

1. No more than one warning
2. Correct transition time (move quietly, go directly to the next activity)
3. Follow the teacher's direction.
4. Complete your work and work the whole time



one tomorrow. The parent called the teacher, and Jake went to bed an hour early and he lost TV privileges the next day. Jake was irate the next day in class and tore up the note and said he would not participate. He was particularly angry because his younger brother got the stay up and watch television when he had to go to bed an hour early. The teacher called the mother at work and discussed the problem. They both decided they could wait longer than Jake. That night he again went to bed an hour early and lost the next day's television privileges. He threw a temper tantrum, stomped out of the house, but came back and was put in bed by his mother. The next day he asked for the note, and did exceptionally well in class. The program has been running for two months. Jake has won three teacher contracts, got the mystery motivator eight times, and is doing particularly well in class. He could be taken off the note, however, the mother wants to continue because it gives her the basic information she needs to know to track Jake's school progress.

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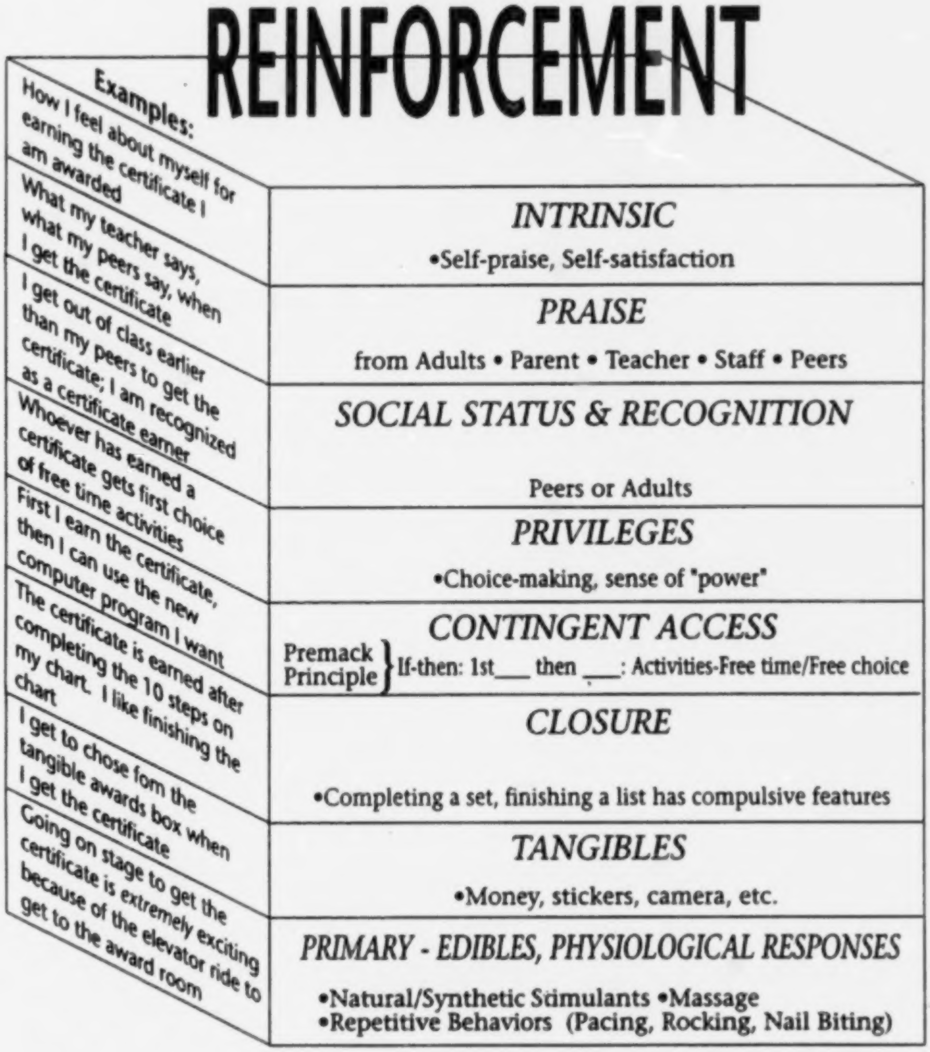
Reinforcement Continuum

Figure 10 highlights types of reinforcement. The reader is cautioned, however, that although the types of reinforcers are presented in hierarchical order, from bottom to top, frequently more than one reinforcer is present in any situation, and the precise hierarchy of intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of a reinforcer is open to interpretation.

FIGURE 10.
REINFORCEMENT CONTINUUM



Examples:	
How I feel about myself for earning the certificate I am awarded	*INTRINSIC* •Self-praise, Self-satisfaction
What my teacher says, what my peers say, when I get the certificate	*PRAISE* from Adults • Parent • Teacher • Staff • Peers
I get out of class earlier than my peers to get the certificate; I am recognized as a certificate earner	*SOCIAL STATUS & RECOGNITION* Peers or Adults
Whoever has earned a certificate gets first choice of free time activities	*PRIVILEGES* •Choice-making, sense of "power"
First I earn the certificate, then I can use the new computer program I want	*CONTINGENT ACCESS* Premack Principle } If-then: 1st___ then ___: Activities-Free time/Free choice
The certificate is earned after completing the 10 steps on my chart. I like finishing the chart	*CLOSURE* •Completing a set, finishing a list has compulsive features
I get to chose fom the tangible awards box when I get the certificate	*TANGIBLES* •Money, stickers, camera, etc.
Going on stage to get the certificate is extremely exciting because of the elevator ride to get to the award room	*PRIMARY - EDIBLES, PHYSIOLOGICAL RESPONSES* •Natural/Synthetic Stimulants •Massage •Repetitive Behaviors (Pacing, Rocking, Nail Biting)

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Lottery/Raffle Tickets

I was caught doing a SUPER JOB! Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________
I was caught doing a SUPER JOB! Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________
I was caught doing a SUPER JOB! Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________	**I was caught doing a SUPER JOB!** Awarded to: ____________

See page 122 for suggestions for use.

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spotlight on excellence

A Self-Control Curriculum for Troubled Youngsters

Martin Henley
The Preventive Discipline Project

The Preventive Discipline Project uses a self-control curriculum keyed to school situations that require students to demonstrate self-control. Teachers use this curriculum as a guide for generating specific self-control objectives for individual students. Since these social skills are designed to create responsibility rather than merely obedience, they readily transfer to the community at large.

Troubled students have an invisible disability. Professionals who work with these youth are like astronomers who study black holes in space: we know them only by the chaos they create. These students fight rather than negotiate, argue rather than discuss, and give up rather than persevere. Confronted with normal classroom routines, troubled students are disabled by a lack of self-control.

Emotional and behavioral disabilities are contagious, affecting even the teachers and making classroom management more complicated. Teachers of students with mental retardation do not experience a slowdown in abstract thinking. Teachers who have students with dyslexia do not start reading letters backward. But teachers with troubled students in their class are hard-pressed to maintain their own emotional and behavioral equilibrium. Long (1990) described how this contagion factor undermines efforts to teach troubled students:

> One of the amazing concepts of interpersonal relationships is that students in stress can actually generate their own feelings and, at times, their behavior in others. For example, an aggressive student can quickly bring out hostile feeling and counteraggression in others. A hyperactive student can make others feel anxious and act in impulsive, irrational ways. Similarly, a detached student frequently gets others to feel depressed and to ignore him or her. If teachers are unaware of this natural reaction, the student's inappropriate reaction will become reinforced and perpetuated automatically by the teacher's reaction (p.8).

Troubled students use their disturbing actions to defy educational intervention. They resist change in order to maintain sameness in their irregular lives. They are disruptive because they are *unable* to direct their own behavior in socially acceptable ways.

BEYOND THE CONTROL CURRICULUM

An all too common response to the disturbing symptoms exhibited by troubled students is to repress student behavior through such control measures as punishment, suspensions, point systems, and "assertive" discipline strategies. These control curricula emphasize teacher autonomy and student conformity (Nichols, 1992). Rather than teaching students how to manage their own behavior, control curricula concentrate on fostering obedience (Curwin and Mendler, 1988). In such restrictive educational programs, troubled students are penalized for acting out the symptoms of their emotional disability. Students who have difficulty verbalizing their feelings are required to be quiet; students with inadequate social skills are isolated from their non-disabled peers; and overactive students are made to sit in their seats for hours at a time (Knitzer, Steinberg, and Fleisch, 1990). Recent criticisms of control curricula underscore the need not to correct "deviant" behavior but to help students learn to direct their own lives (Brendtro and Brokenleg, 1993).

Even the most skilled classroom teacher will find it a challenge to teach self-control to troubled students. The difficulty is compounded by the assumption that self-control is a unitary characteristic; something a student either does or does not have, like intelligence or good character. However, researchers who have examined the psychological underpinnings of self-control report that self-control is actually an umbrella term for a series of discrete skills needed to cope with social situations both in and out of school.

In their classic study, *Children Who Hate*, Redl and Wineman (1951) catalogued 22 specific social situations that trigger loss of control in children with emotional disabilities. Fagen, Long and Stevens (1975) identified a core of eight skills that constitute self-control: selection, storage, sequencing, anticipating consequences, appreciating feelings, managing frustration, inhibition, and relaxation. In a review of the research, Zargoza, Vaughn, and McIntosh (1991) found that many treatment programs do not identify the specific behavioral deficits of target students. While the reviewers found reason for "cautious optimism" about teaching social skills to troubled students, their analysis suggests that educators need to delineate more clearly the social skills needed by individual students.

SELF-CONTROL AS PREVENTIVE DISCIPLINE

For the past several years, I have collaborated with a group of elementary and secondary education teachers in the Preventive Discipline Project, a field-based research project centered at Westfield State College. Our purpose has been to develop a self-control curriculum for troubled students.

For three years, project teachers systematically observed hundreds of students who demonstrated behavioral or emotional problems. They used an observational rating form derived from Redl and Wineman's descriptions of ego disturbances to document classroom situations that triggered loss of control. From these data, profiles of individual student strengths and weaknesses in self-control began to emerge.

Once the teachers were satisfied that the self-control rating scale accurately reflected the range of disruptive behaviors typically engaged in by troubled students, the self-control inventory was field tested on a group of 85 male and 25 female students. The average age of the students was 12 1/2 years, and the age range was from 7 to 21 years. Each student was receiving special education services due to an emotional or behavioral problem. The ratings were completed by 14 experienced special education teachers in settings including inner-city and suburban special classes, residential treatment facilities, and one regular classroom. Analysis of inventory results provided a valid profile of student self-control strengths and weaknesses. From this data, we were able to generate a set of self-control goals and objectives for individual students.

Two criteria were established for the synthesis of the behavioral observations into a self-control curriculum. First, identified self-control skills had to be applicable across educational settings. This required a consensus on teacher expectations for students, periodic revisions of inventory items, and an appreciation for the interactional impact of teacher style on student behavior.

Second, they identified self-control skills needed to generalize to life outside of school. A social skills curriculum is inadequate if it does not help students learn how to adapt to social demands of the community. During the formative period of social-skill identification it became clear to the project teachers that such interpersonal skills as resolving conflicts, rather than such school adjustment behaviors as completing assignments, represented a more ecological view of self-control.

FIVE FOUNDATIONS OF SELF-CONTROL

Self-control is interactive in nature. For example, describing a student's actions as "impulsive" provides an incomplete picture of the student's behavior problem. In order to fully understand the student's impulsive behavior, it is necessary to go one step further and answer the question: In what situation is the student impulsive? Depending on the situation, individual students exhibit marked differences in their ability to control their own behavior. Some students become impulsive when confronted with changes in physical space; others are unable to resist the allure to grab, fondle, or steal tempting objects.

The curriculum devised by the Preventive Discipline Project emphasizes the interactional nature of self-control. It is divided into five broad skill domains: controlling impulses, assessing social reality, managing group situations, coping with stress, and solving social problems (Figure 1). Each domain includes four school-specific self-control skills. A brief description of each domain and its corresponding self-control skills begins on page 42.

Self-Control Curriculum

I. Controlling Impulses
  Moving in Unstructured Space
  Using Instructional Materials
  Making Classroom Transitions
  Resisting the Temptation of Off-Limit Objects

II. Assessing Social Reality
  Accommodating to Classroom Rules
  Organizing Learning Materials
  Accepting Feedback
  Appreciating Feelings

III. Managing Group Situations
  Maintaining Composure
  Appraising Peer Pressure
  Participating in Cooperative Activities
  Evaluating Effect of One's Own Behavior

IV. Coping With Stress
  Adapting to New Situations
  Managing Competition
  Tolerating Frustration
  Demonstrating Patience

V. Solving Social Problems
  Focusing on Present
  Learning from Past Experience
  Recalling Personal Behavior
  Resolving Conflicts

FIGURE 1

I. **Controlling impulses.** Impulses are powerful motivators to action. As youngsters mature, most learn to control their impulses and restrain actions that could elicit negative consequences. In school, students need to manage their impulses when encountering the following situations: *moving in unstructured physical space, using instructional materials, making transitions from one classroom activity to another, and resisting the temptation of off-limit objects.*

Unstructured physical space can overstimulate students. The open space of a gym encourages yelling; the long corridors of a hallway entice running; and the unstructured topography of a field trip invites excitability. Unstructured space presents a lure to misbehavior that impulsive students have difficulty resisting.

Classroom materials can have both intended and unintended uses. The ability to *use instructional materials appropriately* is a basic requirement of normal classroom functioning that can strain self-control abilities. Some impulsive students turn materials into props for acting out feelings. Clay is used for throwing, rather than for modeling; pencils are used for jabbing, rather than for writing; and rulers are used for fighting, rather than for measuring.

Classroom transitions are often accompanied by movement and noise. In his research in secondary and elementary classrooms, Jacob Kounin (1977) found that most behavior problems occur during transitions. The commotion caused by changing work assignments may be all that is needed to trigger impulsive behavior. Transitions that are abrupt or disorganized can place an additional strain on a student's self-control abilities.

Finally, some students are most in jeopardy of impulsive behavior when *tempted by off-limit objects.* A teacher who leaves a pocketbook or a test sitting on a cabinet may quickly discover that at least one student, despite the personal risks involved, found the object irresistible. Students who frequently steal do not need the booty; *they simply are* unable to restrain their impulses.

II. **Assessing social reality.** Success in school and the community requires the ability to evaluate social demands and make necessary behavioral adjustments. Each year many students effortlessly adapt to new classmates and a new teacher. To do this, students must be able to decipher social cues and act in a manner that is concordant with the often conflicting expectations of peers and adults. Deficiencies in the assessment of social reality can result in persistent problems with adjustment to classroom norms. Assessment of social reality entails *accommodating to classroom rules, organizing learning materials, accepting feedback, and appreciating feelings.*

Accommodating to classroom rules is necessary for school success. Students who persistently test classroom limits tend to view classroom rules as a direct attempt to thwart their personal needs. Students who are identified as having an "oppositional defiant disorder" usually have pronounced difficulty accepting classroom rules on a regular basis.

Another key aspect of the social reality of classroom life is the ability to *organize learning materials.* Students who habitually forget or lose assignments, those who come to class unprepared, and students who need constant reminders about their academic responsibilities frustrate themselves and their teachers.

Positive and negative feedback in the form of grades, teacher comments, and judgments by peers are ubiquitous in school. Students who are unable to *accept feedback* may appear apathetic, unconcerned, or angry. Troubled students sometimes confound teachers with a hostile reaction to a positive comment.

Finally, assessment of social reality in school includes *appreciating feelings.* The emotional landscape of some *troubled youngsters is so barren that* feelings come in only two packages—good and bad. These students are keenly aware of their own "bad" feelings and only remotely aware of how others feel. Chronic conflicts with authority help to maintain this black-and-white affective world, where the good guys and bad guys stand out in clear relief from one another.

III. **Managing group situations.** Play, sports, clubs, and friendships provide youngsters with opportunities to refine their socialization skills. A youngster who is unable to take advantage of these important learning experiences is at risk of becoming socially stunted. Normal social development is reflected in a youngster's ability to fit comfortably into a group. The ability to balance one's own best interests against the demands of peer pressure is illustrated by *maintaining composure when other students are overstimulated, appraising peer pressure, participating in cooperative activities, and evaluating the effect of one's own behavior on others.*

Group excitability is contagious. When students in a classroom become overstimulated, some youngsters *maintain composure,* others lose control. Students who are easily swept away by the tumult caused by such events as the entrance of a substitute teacher need to learn how to evaluate situations more effectively for potential negative consequences.

As students mature, they must learn to cope with increasingly complex standards of peer acceptance. Peer pressure manifests itself in many ways. Racism, drugs, and gang membership are predicated on an "us" versus "them" mentality. Self-control under group pressure requires the ability to *appraise peer pressure* and steer an individual course of action.

Recently, educators have become more alert to the value of teaching cooperative group skills. Listening to others, *sharing ideas, and setting group goals* are indicators of personal growth. Each of these skills requires the ability to set aside egocentric concerns and consider other points of view. Students who are unable to *participate in cooperative activities* are handicapped in their social relationships. Their inability to work with peers limits opportunities for success both in and outside of school.

Given a nurturing environment, the young child slowly learns that personal actions create corresponding reactions in others. Students who do not have the ability to *evaluate the effect of their behavior on others* seem to be at a loss to explain how they elicited such reactions as anger, frustration, or disappointment in another child or adult. Conversely, some troubled students have refined their ability to manipulate others and, in an apparently calculated fashion, push specific emotional buttons in order to set off negative reactions. Apathetic students evoke indifference, aggressive students elicit hostile responses, and obdurate students inveigle adults into power and control conflicts.

IV. Coping with stress. Through the combination of perception and biochemistry, stress energizes an individual to action. Stress is a ubiquitous part of everyday experience. A pleasant expectation, such as an early recess, can be packed with as much stress as the unpleasant prospect of being sent to the principal's office. In school, students encounter an array of stressors. The most common of these are *adapting to new situations, managing competition, tolerating frustration, and demonstrating patience.*

Troubled students often are expected to *adapt to new situations.* Some are pulled out of their classroom for resource room assistance, others are placed in special education classes, while a smaller segment are put in alternative school programs. Other adjustments in routine include riding special buses, visiting with counselors, *and attending special classes in isolated* parts of the school building. When the system has judged them ready, troubled students are mainstreamed into regular classes where they are, once again, confronted with the need to cope with a new situation. Pretenses of familiarity, unexpected hostility, and regression into immature behaviors are sample behaviors that characterize how troubled students overreact to new situations.

Competition pervades classrooms. Grades, teacher approval, student rivalries, and such deleterious practices as tracking systems require students to *cope with competition* on a regular basis. Students must learn to win without gloating, and they also must learn to fail without giving up. Troubled students often find even moderate amounts of competition overwhelming. Typical reactions of troubled students to competition include quitting, teasing, or fighting.

Frustration is stressful. The troubled student experiences more than the average daily quota of frustration. Poor school performance, inability to win peer acceptance, and constant conflicts with authority cause an endless cycle of difficulties. Given such a steady diet of frustration, it is remarkable that troubled students persevere at all! Withdrawal—in the form of truancy, lack of effort, and low motivation—characterizes the student with low *frustration tolerance.*

Delayed gratification is a common school experience. Students are required to wait in lines, wait to give answers, and wait for teacher help. The performance of virtually every academic task from reading aloud to lab work requires waiting. Students who fail to *demonstrate patience* are disturbing. They disrupt the smooth flow of classroom routines, which can result in an increasing application of sanctions by the classroom teacher.

> *Solving social problems requires focusing on the present, learning from past experience, recalling personal behavior, and resolving conflicts.*

V. Solving social problems. Interpersonal relationships pose a challenge to all students; but troubled students, in particular, experience chronic difficulties in negotiating relationships. Solving social problems requires *focusing on the present, learning from past experience, recalling personal behavior, and resolving conflicts.* The presence or absence of the above skills makes a significant difference in the success rate that troubled students experience when they attempt to solve social problems.

Emotionally flat days are uncommon. Each of us, students included, must learn to adjust to the highs and lows of a typical day. The emotional gyroscope of a well-adjusted student will enable that student to recover from an unfortunate incident. On the other hand, many troubled students lack the ability to bounce back from an adverse episode; an argument on the bus or a misunderstanding in the classroom can spoil the rest of the day. The student becomes emotionally fixated on a single unpleasant event and is unable to shift gears and *focus on present events,* even when such events offer pleasant possibilities.

Learning from one's past experience is a basic tool for solving present social problems. Natural consequences teach students to redirect future actions in a more constructive fashion. However, troubled students may persist in the same social errors despite negative consequences. These students seem unable to change their behavior in order to achieve pleasant goals or avoid negative consequences.

"It wasn't my fault" is a familiar refrain to teachers of students with weak skills in solving social problems. As Redl and Wineman (1951) observed, students with emotional problems often forget their own contributions to an altercation or classroom problem. This *lack of recall of personal behavior* should not be confused with lying; the students really do not remember their contributing actions. The deficiency rests in the lack of ability to perceive personal behavior clearly enough to review how they managed to get themselves embroiled in trouble (Henley, Ramsey, and Algozzine, 1993).

Troubled youngsters have limited interpersonal tools for *resolving conflicts*. In fact, for some young people an amicable resolution is a sign of weakness. The widespread presence of gangs and the increase of violent acts committed against youngsters by other youngsters bears testimony to the deprived state of many students' negotiating skills.

RESOLVING CONFLICTS

A Case Study of the Self-Control Curriculum in Action

The teaching of social skills, such as those included in the self-control curriculum, requires the same careful preparation that teachers normally devote to academic subjects. The following brief case study details how one teacher systematically developed a self-control behavior management plan for a youngster whose behavior problems were seriously interfering with his ability to function in his fourth-grade classroom. In reality, Frank's behavior management plan focused on several areas. This example details how Ms. Aust went about designing one part of her behavior management plan for Frank.

Frank is 9 1/2 years old. Despite his frequent behavior problems, Frank was promoted from one grade to the next without basic skills needed for school success. He reads on the first-grade level and writes on a second-

GOAL IV: Coping with Stress

The Self-Control Inventory Rating Procedure:

1. Student *rarely* demonstrates ability.
2. Student *sometimes* demonstrates ability.
3. Student *often* demonstrates ability.
4. Student demonstrates *mastery*.

Self-Control Skills:

13. 1 **Adapts to New Situations**. Student adapts to changes in class personnel, schedule, or routine without withdrawing or acting problems.

Example - Student helps a new student.

Comments:

Sample Behavioral Objective: Confronted with a change in regular classroom routine, student makes adjustments with minimal teacher assistance.

14. 2 **Copes with Competition**. Student participates in competitive activities or games without giving up or boasting excessively about winning.

Example - Student continues to enjoy a game when on the losing side.

Comments:

Sample Behavioral Objective: In a competitive situation, the student participates with minimal teacher support.

15. 1 **Tolerates Frustration.** Student manages moderate amounts of frustration or disappointment within the classroom.

Example - When a class field trip is cancelled because of inclement weather, student accepts setback and continues with day's activities.

Comments:

Sample Behavioral Objective: When confronted with a frustrating situation, the student perseveres with teacher support.

16. 2 **Selects Tension-Reducing Activity**. When confronted with a stressful situation, the student alleviates tension through alternative activities such as games, play, exercise, or other stress-reducing endeavors.

Example - Student who is having a bad day relaxes by playing a favorite game during free time.

Comments:

Sample Behavioral Objective: Given some options, student participates in stress-reducing activity, with minimum teacher prompting.

* * *

FIGURE 2

grade level. His inability to read and write age-appropriate materials is very frustrating for him. During reading and writing assignments, Frank will frequently disrupt the continuity of a lesson by refusing to participate. His teacher, Ms. Aust, believes Frank engages in disruptive behavior to mask his embarrassment and negative self-image.

Frank is easily frustrated and he has difficulty with classroom transitions. He has particular difficulty transitioning when he is faced with a challenging subject. His lack of appropriate communication skills exacerbates this problem. Rarely, for instance, will Frank ask for help. Frank needs to establish a pattern of self-control skills, which will help him manage stress.

Ms. Aust did not want to refer Frank for special education evaluation. She wanted to keep Frank in a regular classroom, but she realized that she needed a systematic method for helping him learn to control his behavior. After consulting with the school guidance counselor, Ms. Aust completed *The Self-Control Inventory* (1994). The rating scale identified Frank's strengths and weaknesses in terms of the self-control curriculum. (Figure 2 depicts a sample page from the *Self-Control Inventory*.) With this information in hand, Ms. Aust designed a written behavior management plan for Frank.

Ms. Aust identified "tolerates frustration" as a priority for Frank. Following the outline exhibited in Figure 3, she worked out a behavior management plan to teach the self-control skill of frustration tolerance. Her plan underscored the importance of beginning with a curriculum-based assessment. With this data in hand, she identified a goal (to manage stress), a specific instructional objective, activities, and interventions.

Ms. Aust recognized that the teaching of self-control is a two-fold enterprise. First, activities, lessons, or routines needed to build on student capabilities. Success would help Frank confront his past failures. Second, the behavior management plan required thoughtful interventions. She wanted to be clear and consistent when she responded to his disturbing behavior in the classroom. The written behavior management plan provided her with a tool for problem solving and depersonalizing his classroom disruptions. Because she

Self-Control Behavior Management Plan

Self-Control Behavior Management Plan
Student: Frank
Date: December 4, 1993
Teacher: Ms. Aust
Jackson Elementary School

Self-Control Goal 1: To manage stress

Self-Control Skill (s): Tolerate frustration

Objective: When presented with a challenging assignment, Frank will participate and stay on task with minimal teacher assistance.

Motivators/Skills/Interests: Verbal praise and peer acceptance. First-grade reading skills and second-grade writing skills. Math is his strongest academic area. He enjoys reading poems and favors action-adventure stories.

Activities/Lessons/Routines: Frank will be paired with a classmate for creative writing assignments. Action-adventure is a recommended theme. He will complete worksheets,—based on stories and poems—that will require minimal writing, i.e., matching and pictorial responses. During reading group period, Frank will present a favorite story or poem to the class.

Problem Behaviors: Frank refuses to participate in the class assignment. He argues with fellow students and teacher.

Interventions:

1. Sane messages—accept and acknowledge Frank's feelings. Describe his behavior that is disturbing. Tell him why it is disturbing (without attacking his character) and concretely describe an alternative behavior for him.
2. Invite cooperation, promote self-choice, and foster responsibility.
3. Support self-control. Utilize a variety of nonverbal and verbal forms of hurdle help. Send nonverbal signals, use proximity control, show personal interest, and use humor.

Comments:
Frank must be allowed to experience elements of success in order to create a more positive self-image in regard to reading and writing. When he successfully completes an assignment, for example presenting a poem to the class, his behavior and peer relations improve markedly. Frank responds favorably to one-on-one tutoring in reading. Since he enjoys this activity, it should not be used as punishment. It is imperative that his academic progress be fostered rather than inhibited.

FIGURE 3

stated the specific self-control skill she was working on in her instructional objective, she will be able to evaluate his progress in order to make decisions about programmatic changes.

This brief case study is presented in order to illustrate how teaching self-control can blend in with other class activities. Rather than selecting one portion of a day and identifying it as "social skills time," Ms. Aust merged Frank's self-control behavior management plan with reading and writing activities. Rather than thinking of self-control idiosyncratically (using her intuition and subjective code of appropriate school behavior as a guide), she used a research-based curriculum. Using this approach, she was able to tell Frank, his family, and next year's teacher, the specific self-control skills she was teaching. This clarification of language and expectations provided a solid footing for cooperation between school and family.

CONCLUSION

Troubled students may exit school, but they do not go away. They grow up and become troubled adults. Much troubled behavior can be understood as a normal response to abnormal, stress-riddled lives. Youngsters bully, fight, steal, and lie because they grow up in environments that seem to require such actions. James Garbarino has found that disturbed behavior is symptomatic of an inner struggle for survival: "If you look behind the facade of those tough teenagers who scare you on the street, you may find a frightened kid who sucks his thumb and is afraid of the dark. It's easy to forget they are hurting inside" (Goleman, 1992).

Troubled students need opportunities to associate and learn from others. The social skills that will help them succeed include the self-control abilities of controlling impulses, assessing reality, managing groups, coping with stress, and solving social problems. A social skills curriculum that emphasizes self-control can help troubled youngsters learn new and better ways to manage their lives both in and out of school.

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self-MANAGEMENT

EDUCATION'S ULTIMATE GOAL

JANE F. CARTER

Since the enactment of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, educators have struggled to operationalize the mandate to provide education in the least restrictive environment. In the context of behavior change technology, this mandate has evolved into the principle of *least intrusive intervention*—the use of the least intensive strategy to eliminate problem behavior or increase positive behavior (Fagan, 1986).

This article discusses one area of behavior change technology, self-management, which has special potential for use with adolescents with behavior disorders. Some of the supporting literature is reviewed, compelling reasons why educators should consider self-management strategies are presented, and specific guidelines are provided for planning self-management interventions.

Self-Management Terms

The term *self-management* has nearly as many definitions as there are publications regarding the topic. However, for the purposes of this article, self-management includes any process an individual uses to influence his or her own behavior.

Component Skills

As described in the literature, self-management often includes various component skills such as the following:

1. Self-instruction, which consists of verbal statements to oneself that prompt or direct one's behavior (O'Leary & Dubey, 1979).
2. Self-recording or self-monitoring, in which behavior is monitored and recorded by the individual (Rosenbaum & Drabman, 1979).
3. Self-reinforcement, which refers to student-administered rewards contingent upon performance of a specific task (Albion, 1983).
4. Self-punishment, or self-delivery of punishing consequences (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 1987).
5. Multiple-component treatment packages (Wilson, 1984).

Readers should consult the specific references for detailed information regarding component skills.

Rationales for Using Self-Management

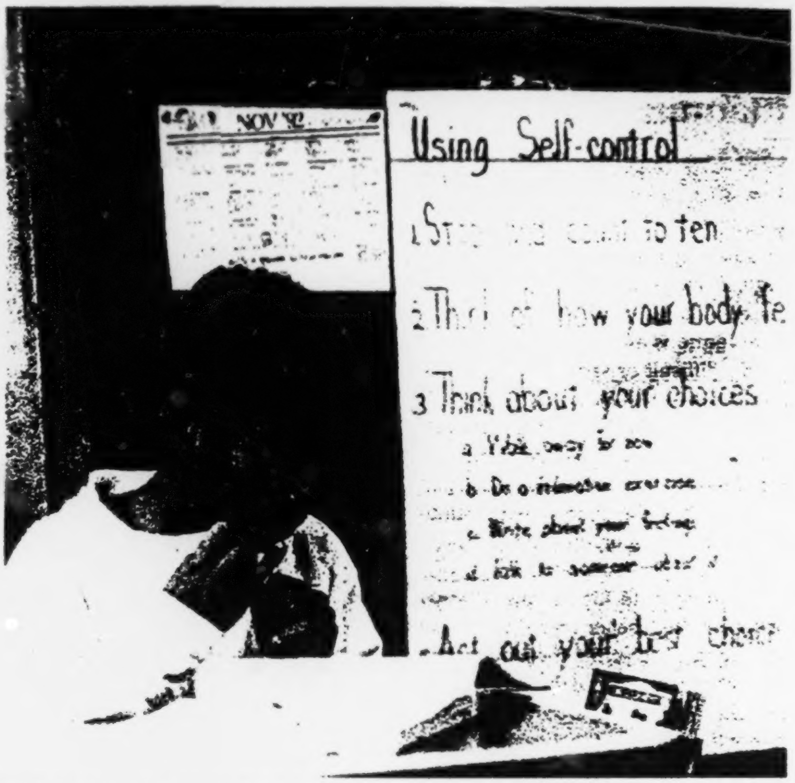
Regardless of the specific strategy or combination of skills included in the definition of self-management, the literature provides many excellent rationales for employing self-management techniques. For example, reliance on external change agents to modify behavior may result in inconsistent contingency management, since teachers or others may miss some important behaviors (Alberto & Troutman, 1982; Cooper et al., 1987). Often the change agents, for example, teachers, become spurious environmental cues for a specific behavior, which may be problematic if generality of the behavior is the goal (Cooper et al., 1987). Just as important, external change agents are not always available in the learner's environment to either prompt or punish a behavior (Alberto & Troutman, 1982; McLaughlin, 1983; Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988). Inconsistencies may also arise when communication between external change agents in different settings (i.e., teachers and parents) is inefficient (Alberto & Troutman, 1982).

Of special interest to teachers of adolescents is that self-monitoring may be particularly effective when used with individuals in this age group. Because monitoring their own behavior meets adolescents' need to control their environment and provides an opportunity to experience a sense of power and competence, self-management may meet less resistance from them than strategies using external control (Jones, 1980). Self-management may also be the first step in "deautomatizing" a behavior chain, particularly when behavior is thoroughly conditioned to certain stimulus conditions (Polsgrove, 1979). As Browder and Shapiro (1985) observed, self-management is important because it involves individuals in their own behavior change. More than this, successful self-management simply feels good (Cooper et al., 1987).

Maintenance and Generalization

Although the reasons for using self-management techniques are numerous, appealing, and logical, maintenance and generalization of treatment effects is not so clear. Some authors have reported durability of performance improvement and generalization to other educational settings (Blick & Test, 1987; Hughes, Ruhl, & Misra, 1989; Rhode, Morgan, & Young, 1983) and have also reported generalization of the effects of self-control instruction to other educational environments. However, O'Leary and Dubey (1979) warned that clear conclusions cannot be drawn regarding the expected effect of self-control procedures on maintenance and generalization. Wilson (1984) also concluded that "a significant weakness of self-management training has been a failure to show treatment generalization" (p. 137). In addition, he noted that long-term effectiveness has not been demonstrated (Wilson, 1984).

Thus, although it would seem that self-management is the most promising of all techniques for promoting generalization and maintenance of behavior change (Alberto & Troutman, 1982), the effects of self-management over time, settings, and individuals have not been addressed adequately in the literature (Polsgrove, 1979). Because of this, educators and practitioners should proceed with caution and with the understanding that, as with other behavior change techniques, generalization and maintenance of self-management skills must be systematically planned.



Students who can self-manage their behavior are able to learn and behave appropriately.

Teaching Self-Management Skills

The individual targeted to benefit from self-management strategies must be carefully taught to engage in effective self-management behaviors. The specific steps a teacher should follow in carrying out this instruction vary somewhat, but they generally include the following:

1. Identifying the target behavior.
2. Defining the behavior.
3. Developing the data collection system.
4. Teaching the student how to use the self-management system.
5. Implementing the system.
6. Evaluating the effectiveness of the system (Alberto & Troutman, 1982; Cooper et al., 1987; Wolery et al., 1988).

Teachers should provide direct instruction on self-management procedures. They should systematically teach the skills by modeling the process to be used, rather than simply informing students that they will be expected to manage their behavior. Instruction should include (a) a rationale for students to engage in the behavior change program, (b) teacher modeling of the procedure, and (c) structured practice and feedback as students use the procedure (Hughes, Ruhl, & Peterson, 1988).

Self-Management Planning Form

Based on a thorough review of the current literature regarding self-management instruction, a planning form was designed to assist teachers in systematically planning and implementing self-management programs (see Figure 1). Teachers should review the guidelines for using the form as well as the sample self-management program included here. They may wish to review some of the applied behavior analysis texts or other publications listed in the reference section for additional information about teaching self-management skills.

Using the Self-Management Planning Form

STEP ① *Select a Target Behavior*

Self-management strategies tend to be most effective with target behaviors that were managed previously by external interventions and types that are not overly difficult or seriously aggressive (Wolery et al., 1988). If the behavior of concern typically occurs at the end of a chain of behaviors, the target behavior for self-management should be one that occurs early in the chain, when the individual may be more effective in intervening (Cooper et al., 1987).

In addition to identifying a target behavior, the teacher must identify an appropriate replacement behavior. The teacher may prefer that the student self-monitor the replacement behavior rather than the target behavior.

STEP ② *Define the Target Behavior*

It is important to the success of any self-management intervention that the target behavior be described accurately and objectively. Accurate definitions allow for accurate monitoring of instances and noninstances of the behavior.

Once the target behavior is defined unambiguously, the teacher should communicate the behavior to the student who will engage in self-monitoring and self-recording. The teacher should not only review the definition, but also present examples and nonexamples of the target behavior, asking the student to identify each example.

STEP ③ *Design the Data Recording Procedures*

Numerous data collection systems have been used successfully in self-management interventions, including event recording, time sampling, and permanent product (Alberto & Troutman, 1982). As with any other data collection form, the self-management form should include information about the setting, a place for performance to be recorded, and a place to summarize the information (Tawney & Gast, 1984). The teacher should keep in mind the importance of designing a system that accurately measures the target behavior and will be easy for the student to use. Finally, the teacher should focus the self-management intervention on those periods of the day when the target behavior is most likely to occur.

Figure 1. Self-Management Planning Form

Student____________________ Teacher ____________________

School____________________ Date ____________________

Step 1: Select a Target Behavior
(a) Identify the target behavior.

(b) Identify the replacement behavior.

Step 2: Define the Target Behavior
Write a clear description of the behavior (include conditions under which it is acceptable and unacceptable).

Step 3: Design the Data Recording Procedures
(a) Identify the type of data to be recorded.

(b) Identify when the data will be recorded.

(c) Describe the data recording form.

Step 4: Teach the Student to Use the Recording Form
Briefly describe the instruction and practice.

Step 5: Choose a Strategy for Ensuring Accuracy

Step 6: Establish Goal and Contingencies
(a) Determine how the student will be involved in setting the goal.

(b) Determine whether or not the goal will be made public.

(c) Determine the reinforcement for meeting the goal.

Step 7: Review Goal and Student Performance
(a) Determine how often the student and teacher will review performance.

(b) Identify when and how the plan will be modified if the goal is met or is not met.

Step 8: Plan for Reducing Self-Recording Procedures

Step 9: Plan for Generalization and Maintenance

STEP 4 Teach the Student to Use the Recording Form

A direct instruction approach is recommended for teaching self-management skills. The teacher should (a) explain to the student the rationale for engaging in a behavior change program; (b) secure the student's willingness to cooperate; (c) model the self-recording procedure while verbalizing each step in the sequence; and (d) conduct practice sessions during which the student practices using the recording system with teacher feedback. A high level of accuracy should be achieved at this step before students can be expected to self-record independently (Wolery et al., 1988).

STEP 5 Choose a Strategy for Ensuring Accuracy

To help the student develop accuracy in self-recording, the teacher should provide opportunities for the student to match his or her record with the teacher's record and give positive reinforcement for accurate recording. As the student becomes more accurate, the matching should be gradually replaced with strategies such as spot checking.

STEP 6 Establish Goal and Contingencies

The teacher will want to include the student when identifying goals for performance, setting criteria, and selecting contingencies. Involving the student in determining desired learning or social outcomes has been shown to have a positive influence on student performance (Maher, 1987). When students establish goals and then successfully attain them, they experience a sense of control over their learning and behavior (Jones & Jones, 1990).

STEP 7 Review Goal and Student Performance

The student should be taught to evaluate his or her self-management efforts and set new criteria and should receive encouragement to continue self-control efforts (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 1987). The teacher and student should have regular opportunities to meet and discuss the self-management project. It might be a good idea to include these conferences in daily lesson plans so they will not be overlooked inadvertently.

STEP 8 Plan for Reducing Self-Recording Procedures

As the student's behavior approaches the performance goal, the teacher should plan to gradually withdraw the self-recording procedure (Wolery et al., 1988). The reduction plan should ensure maintenance of the student's behavior while decreasing external prompting. The teacher should increase the student's participation in goal and criterion setting, selecting and administering reinforcers, and reducing and/or eliminating matching.

STEP 9 Plan for Generalization and Maintenance

The teacher should systematically plan for generalization and maintenance of improved performance by providing opportunities for the student to (a) self-record in other settings and other classes; (b) match records with other teachers; and (c) self-record for different periods of time during the day. The teacher should also plan to substitute naturally occurring reinforcers such as better grades and positive social consequences for the artificial reinforcers used early in the plan. Reinforcement should be delayed so that the student must meet performance goals for increasingly longer periods of time before earning the reinforcer (Wolery et al., 1988).

Classroom Example

As an example of how a teacher might use the self-management planning form, consider Mr. Sherman, a teacher of junior high school students with behavior disorders. Geoff talks out of turn in class and disrupts other students by talking to them. Mr. Sherman has decided to try a self-management program with Geoff to help him control his talk-outs. Figure 2 is a copy of the self-management planning form Mr. Sherman has used to plan an intervention for Geoff.

Conclusion

Several of the advantages of self-management mentioned in this article offer compelling logic to educators who agree with John Dewey (1939), who suggested that the ideal aim of education is "the creation of self control" (p. 75). Students who demonstrate self-management of behavior are able to learn and behave appropriately even when external control is removed. Although questions remain regarding the generalizability and maintenance of self-management techniques, there is ample evidence to suggest that students can be taught to manage themselves.

Even though teaching self-management may be time consuming, challenging, and somewhat uncertain, it is hoped that educators will attempt self-management projects with their students and that researchers will continue to view self-management as one of the higher priorities for applied behavior analysis.

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Contract for self-monitoring. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 55). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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Contract for Self-Monitoring

Student's Name: Date:

Teacher's Name: Class:

Definition of Behavior to be Monitored:

Criterion for Monitored Behavior:

Over What Time?

What do you get if the criterion is met?

What do you lose if the criterion is not met?

Optional Bonus Clause:

Signature of Student:

Signature of Teacher:

Comments:

Monitoring behavior form. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 63). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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Monitoring Behavior Form

Student's Name: Date:

Teacher's Name: Class:

Periods	Performance Rating	Teacher's Comments
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	
	1 2 3 4	

Rating Scale—Circle a Number

1 = Needs Improvement **2** = Barely OK **3** = Average **4** = Great

If the teacher agrees with the student rating, put a line across the circled rating. ⊘

If the teacher does not agree with the student rating, put an "X" across the circled rating. ⊗

Behavior(s) Being Rated:

See page 52 for suggestions for use.

Weekly summary sheet. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 65). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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Weekly Summary Sheet

Student's Name: Date:

Best Daily Score: Weekly Average:

Self-Monitored Behaviors		**MON**	**TUE**	**WED**	**THUR**	**FRI**
1.	Morning					
	Afternoon					
2.	Morning					
	Afternoon					
3.	Morning					
	Afternoon					

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Define one to three behaviors and write them in the boxes.
2. Have the student record the behaviors for the morning and the afternoon each weekday.
3. Do not have the student keep track of more than three behaviors.
4. Have the student write his/her best daily score and weekly average at the top of the form.

Comments:

See page 50 for suggestions for use.

Ioele, M. D., & Dolan, A. L. Teaching courage: Service learning at Pathway School. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Problems,* 1(3), 20 - 23.

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Teaching Courage: Service Learning at Pathway School

Michelle D. Ioele and Anne L. Dolan

This paper was awarded the Trieschman Prize for contribution to the literature of child and youth care practice in a competition sponsored by Albert E. Trieschman Center. The authors describe a successful "service club" program serving adolescent boys with social, emotional, and learning problems who reside at the Philadelphia's Pathway School.

> Helping people boosts me up. It makes me feel real good inside.
> — Al-Hasson Thomas, age 15

Troubled children are rarely afforded the opportunity to view themselves as valuable and worthy. Because they are often in the role of care-recipients, they are not challenged to be, nor do they see themselves as capable of being, caregivers. Although many child and youth programs seek to provide these opportunities, a systematic and effective program for doing so has been lacking.

The service-learning program which began three years ago at Pathway School was not the brainchild of the authors, but rather a result of the children themselves demanding a chance to make a difference. For youth whose academic and social failure has led to low self-esteem and feelings of powerlessness, service learning experiences have proven to be particularly beneficial. Through participation in volunteer community service projects, they developed a positive self-image and confidence in their ability to create change.

Feeling good about oneself is a central component of a full and happy life. Regardless of one's financial, social, or educational position in society, positive self-esteem is necessary in order to develop as a healthy human being.

Many people are desperately searching for a sense of self-worth. Often, they concentrate on what they can purchase, earn, manipulate, or bargain for, instead of looking for a way to be of value to others. We know that humans have an innate need to be needed. Children do not need to be taught to give, but, rather, need to be taught how to give. Service learning teaches these skills and provides children the opportunity to explore what is unique about themselves and what they have to offer.

Service learning is a process of self-discovery. This discovery occurs in two ways. Through experiencing success in helping others, children learn to view themselves differently. Recognizing that they have gifts which are of value to others nurtures feelings of pride and positive self- esteem. Children begin to view themselves as capable of challenges which they had never before thought were within their reach. There is growing recognition of the benefits of service learning and an emerging knowledge base about the creation of effective service learning programs (Conrad & Hedin, 1986; Bird, 1988).

In addition to the discovery within, children involved in service learning receive feedback from others which helps to reinforce a positive self-image. The gratitude of those who receive the children's help, the respect of adults, and the admiration of peers has a powerful impact. Such recognition from significant others serves to confirm their new self-image and their value to others.

STRENGTHS VERSUS WEAKNESS

Find another's gifts, contributions, and capacity. Use them. Give them a place in the community.

— McKnight (1989)

When troubled children enter our programs, the usual professional response is to evaluate them to determine their weaknesses. But focusing on lack of skill inadvertently reinforces a child's negative self-image. Programs grounded in a child's limitations fail to engage the child's strengths in the efforts towards growth. A service learning program provides children the opportunity to discover, develop, and use their strengths toward this end. Successful service learning involves the input and choice of the child. If children feel forced into performing tasks with which they feel uncomfortable or incapable, they will become resistant. What may appear to be disinterest may really be the child's attempt to avoid yet another failure. When children are given the opportunity to use their strengths, their enthusiasm and energy will be devoted fully to the project, and they will begin to view themselves as competent.

> Tim is a 16-year-old boy who has a learning disability and suffers from hyperactivity. He has experienced a great deal of failure, both in and out of the classroom. Tim does very few things well because he can rarely stay on a task long enough to learn basic skills or to see an activity through to the end. However, one area where Tim excels is in the kitchen. Tim both enjoys and displays a talent for cooking. When the service club began making casseroles for the homeless, Tim was an eager and valuable participant. His moment of glory came when the head cook at the shelter asked him if he would be able to come and assist her with preparing meals. Each of the members had been given business cards containing his name and club insignia. As Tim handed the cook his card, he beamed with pride. He was experiencing, perhaps for the first time in his life, that, in spite of his failures, he had something valuable to offer to others.

This student's skills were recognized before he became involved in this project. However, many other children are unaware of what strengths they do possess. They have become accustomed to viewing themselves from the perspective of what they cannot do. Therefore, projects must be designed not only with the recognized strengths of its members in mind, but also must allow for the discovery and development of previously untapped strengths. A child who has never been given the opportunity to plan a project may turn out to possess organizational skills far beyond expectations.

It's better to show pictures of what kings, travelers, and writers looked like before they grew up, or grew old, because otherwise it might seem that they knew everything from the start and were never young themselves.

— Janusz Korczak

> Tony appeared at the first service club meeting uninvited. Staff had not selected him because they knew he had great difficulty being serious in group situations with his peers. However, Tony not only dedicated himself to the meeting topic, but also he subsequently attended every meeting and offered constructive ideas and opinions. He soon became an invaluable member of the group. If staff had acted on their original impulse to ask Tony to leave that first meeting, they would have been shortchanging him and the entire service club. We have since learned to expect surprises.

POWER VERSUS HELPLESSNESS

It's better to show pictures of what kings, travelers, and writers looked like before they grew up, or grew old, because otherwise it might seem that they knew everything from the start and were never young themselves.

— Janusz Korczak (1923)

Children are continually in search of ways to grow up quickly and to start making adult decisions. They desperately want control and power over their own lives, but the adults in their world often will not allow this type of independence.

Children in care experience even greater control over their lives by adults. Teachers, parents, social workers and doctors make all major decisions for them. Troubled children are often placed in programs where they are bombarded with adult expectations.

Many children in residence feel anger and bitterness toward the adults who placed them away from their families. Some of these children feel the need to habitually challenge and fight the system, in hopes of exhibiting some control over their lives. The feeling of helplessness is both frightening and frustrating for them. The quest for power and control often manifests itself in negative ways such as gangs, truancy, stealing, or substance abuse. Troubled young persons cry out for control and power, but are seldom included in the decision-making process that guides their lives. They get the message clearly: you are incapable of making responsible decisions.

When our service club was first being formed, the children and adults had many doubts. Once they had experienced success in an initial project, they recognized they could make a difference in someone's life or in their environment. It is a major victory for children in care to realize their own power to create change.

> As Halloween approached, the service club decided to raise money for UNICEF. They distributed collection boxes to local businesses and restaurants, dressed in costume to collect at a local grocery store, and organized the younger children to trick or treat for UNICEF while collecting candy. The following morning, everyone gathered to empty the cartons and count the money raised. All the members were amazed and excited to find that their original goal of $30 was exceeded by almost $200. It was difficult to believe that a handful of

> people could do so much in so short a period of time. When the coins were converted into a money order for $225, the group studied the material sent by UNICEF to learn what that amount could mean to the recipients. When it was discovered that the amount raised by the project was enough to purchase a well for a drought-stricken community in a foreign country, the group realized what a powerful impact they had made.

After being involved in several projects, and seeing the difference they can make, children start to place higher expectations on themselves. With the realization that they have the power to create change comes the responsibility to act on that power. As they develop feelings of competence in helping others, they encourage others to become involved.

Service clubs allow children to be in control of the meetings and projects. In this way, they learn to take responsibility for everything from choosing the project to seeing it through to completion.

> Corey and Joe proposed that the service club sponsor a dance to raise funds. The group agreed that it was a wonderful idea. When the members looked to staff to assign duties and work out the details, the adults directed the questions back to the two members who had originally proposed the idea. These boys quickly and eagerly assumed leadership and assigned tasks to all present, including the adults. Planning for refreshments was handled by two members, decorations by three others, and so on. At the dance itself, the members collected admission, sold chances, and served food and drink. Corey and Joe acted as disc-jockeys and provided an evening of entertainment for all. During the following week, staff and students alike remarked to Corey and Joe how much they had enjoyed their dance.

When given the opportunity to control the projects and become the decision-makers, the club members are confronted with their own power. Service learning provides positive ways for exerting influence, enabling youth to discover that they have the power to make a difference in their world.

WORTHINESS VERSUS WORTHLESSNESS

To mean something in the world is the deepest hunger of the human soul.

— Platon (1968)

Often, children in care become convinced that they are unworthy of respect and undeserving of praise. They see themselves as damaged goods, having little or no value in a world which stresses excellence. Their counterparts in the public schools receive recognition for academic and athletic success, areas where many troubled children find only failure. Searching for value and meaning in their life often leads them into negative behavior because this may be the only area where they can achieve status and gain acceptance. A student who is last in his class may find the opportunity to be number one by becoming the leader of a gang. For many children who are struggling to find a sense of self-importance, a bad reputation is better than no reputation at all.

Recognition for positive behavior, for helping others, is a cornerstone of service learning. Children who previously saw themselves as having nothing to contribute find that others value the simple gift of their time. They learn that by spending an hour with a senior citizen, they are improving the quality of a human life. Youth who have been rejected time and again are welcomed with anticipation by people who are desperate for companionship.

> The members had been collecting used toys for two months and had spent many hours cleaning, repairing, and wrapping them. They were to be delivered to a group of disabled pre-schoolers at a holiday party sponsored by the club. The event turned out to be well worth the months of preparations and hard work. Club members helped the pre-schoolers make decorations, break a piñata, and play "Pin the nose on Santa." The gifts were given, on Santa's knee, to each of the 50 children. All of the members, including Santa himself, were surprised by the happiness they saw reflected in the children's eyes as a result of their efforts. Afterward, however, something really surprising happened. The teachers who worked in the pre-school came up to the members and expressed their appreciation for the party, the toys, and most of all the time that the young people had spent with their group. They pleaded with the members to return and informed them that they were welcome at any time. After many "thank you's," the group piled into the vans for the ride home. The conversation that took place during the ride was one that the staff had never heard before. In a tone of awe, members were sharing with their peers the comments that the teachers had made, and many repeated in disbelief the requests to return that they had received. These children had received feedback many times from off-campus visits, often in the form of requests not to return or as warning to improve their behavior. For some of them, this was the first time that anyone had ever expressed such appreciation for their time.

Recognition for positive behavior, for helping others, is a cornerstone of service learning. Children who previously saw themselves as having nothing to contribute find that others value the simple gift of their time.

What happened that day was a beginning for the members, a first step toward understanding their value and importance as human beings. Once these children realized the significance of their actions, they began to view themselves as noble and worthy. This view was reinforced by peers and adults who expressed admiration for what the members were doing. A letter written to each child by the school's executive director contained the following:

> "I just wanted to take a moment to let you know how important I think what you are doing is for everyone concerned....Your behavior and planning and organization can serve as a model, so that perhaps more of us can get involved in helping others and thereby helping ourselves."

GIVING VERSUS DEPENDENCY

...idealism — and generosity of spirit — is a natural part of childhood.

— Coles (1988)

Although there is a certain sense of security in being taken care of, children begin to feel restless, and they are no longer content with merely having their basic needs met.

Many troubled children spend their lives being cared for by a variety of individuals, agencies and institutions. Their basic physical needs are met, and the programs attempt to provide for their educational, emotional, and social needs. Their neediness has been magnified and restated in many ways. The underlying message is that their primary role is to receive care from others. McKnight (1989) states that "being a service recipient teaches people that their value lies in their deficiencies, not in their capacities."

Although there is a certain sense of security in being taken care of, children begin to feel restless, and they are no longer content with merely having their basic needs met. Children are energetic and possess an innate desire to get involved in the activities around them. They are naturally curious and inventive, motivated and desirous of success.

Service learning challenges care recipients to assume the new and unfamiliar role of giving care. Professionals are often guilty of placing limits on the children with whom they work instead of "demanding greatness." Discouraged children must be given the courage to envision themselves as capable of great things. Because the rewards of their energies are immediate, caring soon becomes fashionable (Brendtro, Brokenleg, & VanBockern, 1990).

> The service club regularly visits a city shelter for the homeless called Trevor's Place. Most visits consist of delivering casseroles and spending time with the children who live there. On one visit, we saw a number of homeless people sitting on steam vents in the surrounding neighborhood. We felt badly that we had nothing to offer them and decided to bring along some peanut butter and jelly sandwiches on our next trip. As we packed the vans on the day of our next visit, sandwiches included, Alex asked if he could bring along an old blanket of his to offer to one of the homeless people on the street. Staff agreed to his request, and upon hearing this, another of the boys ran into his room and returned with his blanket.

Both of these boys had read about Trevor Ferrell, the boy for whom the shelter was named, and of his first encounter with the homeless, when he urged his parents to drive him to center city Philadelphia to deliver his extra blanket (Ferrell, 1985). What makes the actions of these two boys remarkable, however, is that they themselves come from impoverished backgrounds. A blanket is one of their few possessions and yet, in the role of care-giver, they viewed themselves not as the needy, but the needed.

When children become aware that there are people who are more needy than they, their focus changes from self-preoccupation to concern for others. Taking on the new role of care-giver is often accompanied by a reevaluation of their own needs. When they recognize that they are capable of giving care, children also begin to view themselves as less in need of others' care. In the role of care-giver, children see themselves as strong, powerful, and worthy.

> That same evening, as we left Trevor's, we intentionally drove through the most desolate part of the city. We still had sandwiches to give, and we were searching for someone who might appreciate some food on a cold December night. As we approached a dark intersection, Tim cried out from the back seat of the van that there was a homeless person on the corner. He grabbed a sandwich and climbed out the back door, running over to where an old woman sat. She clearly had all her worldly possessions surrounding her: an old shopping cart, a wooden stool, and other items that had been scavenged from the sidewalks. As Tim nervously approached her, asking if she would like a sandwich, she displayed a toothless grin and answered yes. He handed her the sandwich and, not knowing what else to say, ran back to the van. The others questioned him, wondering what he had said, what she had said, and whether or not he had been frightened. But Tim said very little. He just sat quietly — and smiled.

It is not difficult to understand what Tim was feeling that night. He was experiencing emotions with which we, as child and youth professionals, are quite familiar. The same desires that motivate us to reach out to the children in our care are present in every human being, young and old. In our work, we have the opportunity to experience the satisfaction of giving every day. We also have the responsibility to offer that same opportunity to our children.

Michelle Ioele was a residential counselor and Anne Dolan was co-ordinator of service learning and recreation at the Pathway School, Jeffersonville, Pennsylvania. Both are currently continuing advanced education, and Dolan is an advisor to the service program at Pathway. They dedicate their paper to the memory of Al-Hasson Thomas, whose brief life continues to impact others.

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Moving to Independence

A Partnership Helping At-Risk Youth

by Lanney Mayer
Teacher on Special Assignment
Afflerbaugh/Paige Camps

At first it seemed like an unlikely match. Vinny has three fingers on each hand and is more the size of a toddler than a grade school boy. He is mentally and physically disabled and cannot walk or talk. He is sitting on the lap of a juvenile offender twice his size who may have been arrested for any number of violent offenses.

A unique partnership between the Los Angeles County Office of Education (LACOE), Divisions of Special Education and Juvenile Court and Community Schools (JCCS) and The Los Angeles County Probation Department has resulted in a first-of-its-kind and nationally recognized program. It brings together two populations from extreme ends of the spectrum of both at-risk groups: Incarcerated wards of the juvenile court and the most severely disabled students LACOE educates. It aims to increase the independence and readiness of both for life in the larger world.

Mary Higgins, principal of El Camino School, conceived of this partnership after visiting MOVE (Mobility Opportunities Via Education) run by the Kern County Office of Education. There, special equipment and exercises helped physically challenged students sit, stand, and even walk for the first time in their lives. But one-on-one assistance was essential.

Higgins approached Sue Thomsen, principal of LACOE's Afflerbaugh-Paige High School. Juvenile Court and Community Schools educate all students in the Los Angeles County Juvenile Court system—55,000 annually.

JCCS has developed a national model for educating at-risk youth which increases academic and vocational skills while building student responsibility and self-esteem. Relevant field placements are encouraged as part of Work Experience Education. El Camino's program seemed the perfect vehicle for this broad philosophy. Many Afflerbaugh students apply for the two seven man crews and provide the manpower four times weekly so El Camino students whose families were told they would never stand, learn to walk. In exchange for this service, lasting a minimum of 8 weeks, JCCS students receive academic credit and marketable job skills as an instructional assistant.

In their applications and journals Afflerbaugh students indicate their interest:

"One of my friends got shot in the spine and he's paralyzed from the waist down. I used to help him get dressed and groom him. I used to help him around in his wheel chair too. So you could say I have experience with handicapped people." "I use to wonder if I could do anything. Now I know I could be a teacher."

El Camino parents, like Tania's mother, know that too. "I never thought my daughter could move herself," she says holding back tears. "I love her so much, but sometimes I feel so helpless. I love Michael for this. Sometimes I just come to watch them together. She knows who he is. I can see her get excited when he comes in."

Indications are that the El Camino students have increased mobility by 141% while their juvenile ward counterparts have a recidivism rate of only 16% after nine months at home, far below the national average. In addition to

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Moving to Independence

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recidivism, school behavior referrals are reduced, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale is beginning to provide indications of measurable improvement in self-integration and esteem for self and others. Camp Director Floyd Simpson has expressed that the entire camp population has been positively affected by the wide-spread interest in participating.

It is hoped that the benefits of this unique interagency cooperation can be extended and replicated. The program is currently a semifinalist in application for a substantial grant from the Ford Foundation in collaboration with the John F. Kennedy School of Government at Harvard. If successful, this money will be used to create community partnerships and incentive programs which will increase the likelihood of continuing student success. It will also help create training programs for replication. Moving to independence is a blueprint for co effective interagency cooperation and meaningful education for the 21st Century.

Jacobs, L. J., & Joseph, D. G. (1994, April). *"Stop or I'll shoot": Managing aggressive behavior*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Council for Exceptional Children, Denver, CO.

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COUNCIL FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN
1994 CONFERENCE
Denver, Colorado

"Stop or I'll Shoot"- Managing Aggressive Behavior

Dr. Linda J. Jacobs
Ms Delia G. Joseph

"It's all in the name"

Language is key in defining and describing any behavior or situation. How language is used in the classroom can escalate or de-escalate aggressive behavior.

Things to DO:

1. Use calm language.
2. Treat students with dignity.
3. Describe the behavior, not your reaction to it. e.g. "You seem to be very angry about something." not "You are driving me crazy".
4. Control your own emotional, negative reactions.
5. Realize that the student's behavior is a reflection of his/her disability and has little to do with you.
6. Distance yourself emotionally from the behavior.
7. Encourage positive self-talk.
8. Observe the 5 to 1 ratio. i.e. Five positive statements for every negative one.
9. Use good manners with students. Say "please", "thank-you", "excuse me"
10. Discuss the misbehavior after the student has calmed down.

Things NOT to do:

1. Use crisis oriented words. e.g. crisis, emergency, crazy, out-of-control.
2. Use sarcasm.
3. Humiliate or embarrass a student.
4. Force an apology
5. Yell at or threaten a student or offer a punishment during the height of the behavior problem.

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"Stop or I'll Shoot"- Managing Aggressive Behavior

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"Setting the Stage"

The classroom can be viewed at the "stage" on which the teacher and the students perform. The "stage" can be set to encourage appropriate behavior or it can be set to foster acting out behavior.

Things to Do:

1. Create a classroom atmosphere in which students are successful at something.
2. Allow students to participate in the governance of the classroom, to be part of the decision making process.
3. Respect the dignity of each child and require that others do so as well.
4. Correct students in private, praise in public.
5. Sincerely care about the students and let them know it.
6. Show and describe positive feelings and emotions.
7. Use "I messages" in describing why you are upset.
8. Make it okay to make a mistake.
9. Recognize achievement through applause, stickers, privileges.
10. Show affection and support when things are going poorly, offer hurdle help.

Things NOT to do:

1. Demand limits but offer no freedom.
2. Be the sole authority and power figure in the class.
3. Demand obedience.
4. Exhibit aggressive, vengeful behavior.
5. Expect students to behave because you are the teacher and you said so!

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"Stop or I'll Shoot"- Managing Aggressive Behavior
Dr. Linda J. Jacobs
Ms Delia G. Joseph

"Playing by the Rules"

This approach proposes an alternative plan for establishing classroom control. Student behavior is guided by a system of rules, not unlike the laws of society, which must be obeyed as part of the classroom social contract. The rules govern behavioral requirements-not teacher directives.

Things to DO:
1. With student input establish a few, brief rules of acceptable behavioral standards.
2. Allow freedom within the limits of these standards.
3. Encourage self-discipline and self-monitoring for rule compliance.
4. Allow choices within a structure.
5. Practice mediation procedures to solve disputes.
6. Practice the 3 R's of consequences-Related, Reasonable, Respectful.
7. Allow students to save face.
8. View behavioral violations as poor choices by good children, not as the behavior of bad children.
9. Expect students to obey the rules, not the teacher.
10. Ask the "does it matter" question.

Things NOT to do:
1. Expect students to comply because you are the authority figure.
2. Make rules that do not relate to learning environment.
3. View the solution of a behavioral problem as a battle to be won or lost.
4. Distance yourself from the students and the classroom society.
5. Exclude students from the decision making management process.

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Avoiding Power Struggles by Helping Students Cope with Stress

Rosalyn Anstine Templeton

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In Illinois, as in many other states, special education and its role within our educational system is being carefully examined. Whether to adopt an inclusion model, phasing out all self-contained special education placements, or maintain the status quo is a topic of heated debate. Some schools have already incorporated an inclusion model, while the majority are taking a "wait and see" position.

Many regular education teachers, seeing inclusion for the future, have fear in their hearts and are searching for additional techniques to help educate those "difficult" students. At a recent conference, one teacher was asked for a clearer definition of a "difficult" student. She said, "You know, they're the angry kids that come to school looking for fights, and they'll do anything to get them. These students hate teachers and school. Once they get you going, they usually win and leave you feeling like a helpless fool." In this paper, a closer look at why "difficult" students fight with adults will be presented.

Why Do Students Initiate Power Struggles?

There are many views on why students engage teachers in power struggles. Albert (1989), Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper (1982), Nelsen (1987) and Froyen (1993) see students who seek power as individuals who have become discouraged with life situations and use faulty logic to find recognition in the classroom. For these theorists, power-seeking behaviors surface only when students are unable to gain status with attention-getting behaviors. Looking at this type of unproductive behavior from another perspective, Abraham Maslow (1968) views misbehavior as a child's reaction to not having his or her basic needs met within the environment where the inappropriate behavior is occurring. Still other theorists view plays for power as skill deficits. This social, cognitive skill deficit model suggests "that students need to be taught social and work skills in the same manner that they are taught reading or math skills" (Jones &Jones, 1990, p. 35). A common theme in the above assumptions is that students are trying to cope with situations that cause them stress. If students become discouraged, they will experience distress. When students have not had their needs met they will feel anxiety. If students lack social skills, they will feel stress when others react negatively to their inappropriate behavior. Psychoeducational theorists also support this assumption. Seeing power struggles as a result of individuals experiencing stress trying to interact with each other, Wood and Long (1991) note:

> One way of looking at crisis is to see it as the product of a student's stress kept alive by reactions of others, When a student's feelings are aroused by stress, the student will behave in ways that buffer against the painful feelings. This behavior usually is viewed as negatively by others (adults and peers), causing then to react negatively to the student. This reaction from others causes additional stress for the student (p. 33).

If power struggles result from teachers and students feeling stress, then the first step in avoiding these battles would be to develop an understanding of what stress is and how it works. On the following pages, the dynamics of stress, how stress can develop into power struggles and the strategies for preventing them will be examined.

What Is Stress?

Long & Duffner (1980) define stress "as a personal and subjective reaction to a specific life event, causing the individual to experience a physiological and psychological feeling of discomfort" (p. 218). Long and Duffner explain that students experiencing stress will try to create their negative feelings and at times their inappropriate behaviors in teachers. In other words, students will set up situations to get their teachers to act out their feelings of angry or rejection. In working with what Carla Hannaford (1990) calls stressed-out, survival oriented humans (SOSOH), a major goal for teachers is to develop classroom environments that are supportive, understanding and teaches needed skills to overwhelmed individuals. Therefore, the best prevention to overreacting to stressed out students is to become knowledgeable about the dynamics of stress.

How Stress Affects People

Bob Whitmore (1987) supports the assumption that stress affects the body physically, psychologically and behaviorally. First, stress creates physical signs such as heart racing, rapid breathing, muscle tension, stomach churning, etc. The physical side of stress is part of a larger range of bodily functions called the stress response. In a simplified form, the stress response prepares the body for the "fight or flight syndrome" by increasing body temperature, heart and breathing rates, muscle tension and the flow of blood to the legs and arms. The stress response once triggered is automatic, immediate and very powerful. Consequently, people under stress may react in extreme ways to normal situations. For example, a teacher may casually ask his class to open their history books, and one student may throw the book across the room, while calling the teacher a name. In this example, a simple request was met with an extreme overreaction.

The second way stress affects people is psychologically. Individuals who are stressed have feelings of panic, fear of losing control, irritability and nervousness. These feelings lead the individual to think and/or say negative comments to themselves such as, "I'm so stupid." or "I can't cope with this stress." or "I'll end up in a mental hospital, if this continues." These, often unconscious, remarks serve to intensify the stress a person is feeling. Finally, the negative feelings and self-talk are prolonged by attitudes or beliefs of which a person may not be aware , but which influence the way he or she sees a situation. Generally, people are not aware of the attitudes that create or prolong stress because they were acquired at an early age. Whitmore (1987) notes that the three most stress-provoking attitudes in society are as follows: (a) I must succeed at every thing I do; failure is unforgivable; (b) I must take care of everyone else's needs before I take care of my own; and (c) there is no point in trying to change because I am worthless.

In addition to influencing the body physically and psychologically, stress can affect people's behavior in a variety of ways, most commonly avoidance. When a person chooses to avoid stress-provoking circumstances additional problems surface. First, when a stressful situation is avoided an individual will be tempted to avoid other similar situations. Second, once a situation or event has been avoided, it becomes harder for the person to face it the next time. Third, once a person avoids a situation, they feel guilty and like a failure. These feelings reduce one's self-esteem and confidence. Depression is the fourth problem that surfaces when an individual chooses to use avoidance. Often the same events that cause stress can also be a source of pleasure. By avoiding situations that once were a source of enjoyment, people run the risk of becoming depressed. To illustrate more clearly the difficulties that avoidance creates, the following scenario is presented:

Problem One: (Avoid Similar Situations)	Mary avoids going to her mother-in-law's house for Sunday dinner. She discovers that she is also stressed about going to her sister-in-law's house, so declines an invitation for coffee.
Problem Two: (Event Harder to Face)	The next Sunday, Mary becomes more anxious and refuses another invitation to her mother-in-law's house for dinner.
Problem Three: (Decreased Self-Esteem)	Mary feels guilty about avoiding relatives. She tells herself she is a failure.
Problem Four: (Depression)	Mary becomes depressed because she misses not talking with her father-in-law. He makes her feel like a valuable part of the family.

Not only do teachers have to understand how stress affects people physically, psychologically and behaviorally, they need to develop a knowledge of the types of stress that individuals experience on a daily basis. With this knowledge, teachers will be able to understand that when stressed-out students overreact, they are reacting to their stresses and not to what teachers say, do, or request. To put students' overreactions into perspective, Eris Brooks, a child care worker, suggests, "What helps for me is to not to take anything a child says or does personally. I know it's not me. I've only been in this kid's life maybe three months or maybe a year, so I know their anger isn't directed at me." (Video tape by Brendtro, Ness & Powell [1990] entitled *Walking Through the Storm*).

The Types of Stress

Long & Duffner (1980) organizes stress into four categories—developmental, economic, psychological and reality. *Developmental stress* is the type of stress associated with any normal developmental stage from birth to death. For example learning to walk, getting married, having a baby, taking a important exam, getting a divorce, mother dying, or turning thirty will most likely cause individuals to feel developmental stress. Many students will experience developmental stress when they begin to read and write, take tests, try to master difficult concepts or learn to play instruments and sports.

Families living without an income or from paycheck to paycheck will feel *economic stress*. Typically, we may think that those on "assistance" are the only ones that will feel this kind of stress. However, many striving middle class families are living beyond their financial resources and have extended their credit lines to breaking points. One minor accident or illness could cause financial disaster for such a family. Students suffering from economic stress may have poor eating habits due to either lack of adequate food, or because parents, who are consumed with worry, do not care what or when their children eat. Children may have to do without acceptable clothing, which causes difficulties (real or imagined) with peers. For example, a youngster who is accustomed to wearing designer jeans will feel embarrassed and humiliated when forced to wear a pair that reflects lesser status and prestige. Another concern will be a lack of privacy and space, if the student's family has to move in with relatives.

Reality stress surfaces when unplanned events such as a flat tire, misplaced checkbook or forgotten appointment occurs. In school, children may experience reality stress with surprise tests, forgotten homework or materials, when belongings are stolen, when clothing is torn or when they are attacked verbally or physically.

Any look, gesture or comment that causes hurt feelings or a blow to one's self-esteem creates *psychological stress*. Psychological stress has become an ingrained part of life from home to school to work to community. When parents tell their children they are stupid, clumsy, messy, silly, careless, or noisy, they will feel psychological stress. When relatives, siblings or peers name-call or give each other dirty looks, they cause psychological stress. Psychological damage occurs when educators degrade and/or blame co-workers, students, parents and administrators.

Although stress has been categorized into four groups, it should be noted that one incident can cause several types of stress simultaneously. For example, an eighth-grader goes to his locker and sees that his wallet was stolen, he immediately feels the reality of the situatiΣts call him irresponsible for not locking his locker, he will feel psychological stress. In addition to feeling several stresses from one incident, teachers and students can experience multiple stress-provoking issues at one time. To understand how the negative cycle of stress can surface in the classroom as a power struggle, Long (Long & Duffner, 1980) developed the concept of the conflict cycle. This model explains how a conflict develops as a reciprocal interaction between teacher and student, where both parties are equally influenced by the attitudes, feelings and behaviors of each other.

The Conflict Cycle

Long's model (1986) pictures conflict as a circular, interconnected interaction that is comprised of four parts—student's stressful incident, student's feelings, student's behavior and teacher's reaction. Another important aspect of the conflict cycle is the student's self-image. A student with a strong self-image will be able to cope with daily stresses and will see no value in fighting with teachers. A student with a damaged self-image may become overwhelmed with daily stress, determined to fight to prove that teachers (adults) are hostile or rejecting. If teachers fall into power traps, students will not only prove that adults are hostile or rejecting, but they will gain status among their peers.

Initially, the first round of the conflict cycle begins when a student with a low self-image experiences a stressful incident. Second, the stress-provoking circumstance colored by the individual's self-image will evoke negative feelings and thoughts. Next, these feelings and thoughts will influence the student to behave in an inappropriate way to hide his stress or pain. Usually, a student will do something unbecoming to get a teacher to feel or act in an angry or repudiating way. Finally, if the teacher overreacts and mirrors the child's inappropriate feelings and behavior, the student will feel additional stress which keeps the conflict going until a power struggle ensues. To highlight this dynamic interaction, Long (1990) states:

> As the adult (teacher) mirrors the (student's) behavior, the conflict escalates and the student's feelings become more intense and his behavior becomes more inappropriate and the adults reactions become more righteous and it goes around and around and around, until it gets to the point of craziness. And in which (case) there are no winners (Video Tape by Brendtro, Ness & Powell entitled, *Walking Through the Storm).*

The following story shows how a simple misunderstanding turned into a power struggle, because the teacher was unaware of the dynamics of stress.

Background Information: Bill and Mark are inseparable in and outside of school. Ms. Henderson is not surprised when they ask for permission to be seated next to one another. Although another teacher who has both boys in class has expressed her consternation about their outrageous behavior, Ms. Henderson, not wishing to be unduly influenced by her colleague, agrees to give them a chance to prove they can be responsible while seated in adjoining desks. The boys prove worthy of her trust for several days, but then all heck breaks lose...

Student's Self-Image: Bill sees himself as a failure. His grades are low, and he was cut from the football team. He moves a lot and has a difficult time making friends. He has never been able to please his father who is a Captain in the United States Air Force.

Round One of Conflict

Stressful Incident: Bill was told that morning that once again his family would be moving. They would move during Christmas break which was only two weeks away. Bill experiences anxiety.

Feelings: Bill is angry. He feels that his parents don't care about him. He doesn't want to leave his buddy, Mark.

Behavior: Noisily, he enters the classroom, slams books on desk and slumps in chair to wait for Mark.

Teacher Reaction. Notices that Bill's in a foul mood. She chooses to ignore him, hoping his sulk will end shortly.

Round Two of Conflict

Stressful Incident: Bill knows that teacher has noticed him and has chosen to ignore him. The teacher's behavior causes Bill to experience psychological stress.

Feelings: Bill feels angry at his teacher because she has rejected him. He thinks, "Adults just don't give a damn about kids. They can just ignore us and tell us what to do. Well, I'm sick of it!"

Behavior: Class has started, but Bill decides to continue to talk to Mark and ignores Ms. Henderson's request to get out math books.

Teacher's Reaction: Ms. Henderson notices that Bill is bothering Mark. Mark is trying to prepare himself for math. In front of the class and in a loud voice she says, "Bill, you need to stop bothering Mark and get out your book." Several students stare at Bill and begin to snicker.

Round Three of Conflict

Stressful Incident: Bill is feeling increased psychological stress because his teacher has called him a bother and has done so in front of the entire class.

Feelings: Bill feels embarrassed and more angry. He thinks, "What gives the old bitch the right to tell me what to do?"

Behavior: Bill stares coldly at Ms. Henderson and snarls, "What's your problem?" He then turns to Mark and continues to talk.

Teacher Reaction: Ms. Henderson loses her patience and angrily tells Bill to shut up or to get out.

Round Four of Conflict

Stressful Incident: Bill feels increased psychological stress because Ms. Henderson has told him to shut up. He also experiences reality stress because she has given him an ultimatum to be quiet or to leave which means going to the principal's office.

Feelings: Bill feels intense anger, but he also feels some pleasure in that he has pushed Ms. Henderson to lose her cool.

Behavior: Bill stands up at his desk, glaring belligerently at the teacher and storms across the room. He loudly deposits his textbook in the wastebasket while saying he's thrilled to leave this damn class, as he exits through the back door.

Wood and Long (1991) remind us that as educators we need to help students understand that feelings of anxiety are a normal part of daily living and that everyone, regardless of race, religion, gender or economic status, experiences stress. Our goal is to model for students that having feelings of stress is okay but letting the stress overwhelm and influence us to use inappropriate behavior is not.

How to Avoid Power Struggles

Prevention is the best way to avoid a power struggle. In other words, if I know in advance that this student is going to try to influence me to become hostile, rejecting or hyperactive then I have some choice about that. I can chose to avoid a power struggle. Supporting the idea of choice, Allen N. Mendler (1992, p. 73) gives educators an eight step plan for eluding power struggles:

1. Ignore "hooks." (Any comment, look or behavior designed to initiate an angry response)
2. Actively listen to what the student is saying without agreeing or disagreeing.
3. Actively listen to the student's feelings without agreeing or disagreeing.

4. Tell the student that a power struggle is developing and defer to a private time.

5. Remove the student from the class or give (student) more control.

6. Invoke the insubordination clause. (Which means the student may not return to the classroom until the consequence is accepted or an alternative method to demonstrate responsible behavior is decided upon.

7. Remind the student of the consequences as the student leaves class if the power struggle ended between Steps 1-4.

8. Seek out student later and try to resolve differences if you reached Steps 4-5.

Mendler assures us that by using the above plan, we can avoid discord with students. However, he is quick to point out that if a teacher finds herself in the middle of an argument, then she has two alternatives. First, she can try to negotiate a way out of the conflict ("Let's take a few minutes to calm down. And then go somewhere private to solve our difficulty"), or she can refuse to escalate. In which case, the student will find it difficult to continue a power struggle with someone who refuses to fight.

Looking at avoiding power struggles from a psychoeducational orientation, Long states, "Your challenge is not to be baited or seduced into a power struggle, but to make students responsible for their behavior" (1986, p. 11). To escape the power struggle trap, he suggests using the following five skills:

- *Sending "I" messages and not "you" messages.* Teachers are encouraged to use "I" messages to prevent their intense feelings from exploding into inappropriate teacher behaviors. "I'm getting upset," or "I'm feeling disappointed right now." Using the word "you" ("You are ruining my lesson!") will increase the student's anger and therefore escalate the conflict.
- *Decoding student behavior into feelings.* This technique requires the teacher to interpret a student's words, actions and body language into feelings. "You look upset. Did something happen at recess?" Since most students experiencing stress do not know how to express their feelings, it is important for adults to model that it is okay to have negative feelings and to talk about them to help relieve stress.
- *Pairing teacher intervention with values.* Since stressed out students perceive adult intervention as adult hostility or rejection, it is vital that teachers take the time to explain the reasons for stopping or interfering with inappropriate behaviors. In addition, if teachers are able to pair interventions with a value, students learn how people should work and live together in harmony. For example, "In this room all students have the right to learn without distraction. Please decrease the noise level."
- *Using behavior modification programs until trust begins to develop.* Stressed out survival oriented humans (SOSOH) do not trust others readily. In their pasts, trusting people has caused them disappointment and additional pain. For the same reason, stressed-out children and youth lack the ability to trust teachers. Because of this inability, it is more effective for teachers to set up reinforcement systems that are directly related to the desired behavior than to push teacher-student relationships. Contracts and point/token systems work well because they minimize the teacher's role in a student's program. Since, the student has the choice to earn points or tokens or to follow his contract, the teacher is no longer viewed by the student as the roadblock to reaching his goal. Once trusts begins to develop and the teacher-student relationship begins to form, the reinforcement systems should be phased out.
- *Interpreting consequences as poor decision making.* When students choose not to earn their points or tokens and are not able to purchase their rewards, they need to understand that it was by their own volition. Often stressed individuals want to blame others for their own poor decision making, and it is up to the adult to interpret the situation accurately. "Those students who made the choice not to earn enough points will not be able to participate in today's movie."

In addition to learning skills and techniques to avoid power struggles, teachers need to learn coping skills that will help them decrease their own stress and make class time more productive for students experiencing stress.

Strategies for Reducing Stress

Reducing Stress for Teachers

Bob Whitmore (1987) makes the following suggestions for people who want to cope with stress and anxiety effectively:

1. **Exercise regularly.** People who are in shape physically can deal with stress more effectively than those individuals who are not in good shape. Why? Exercise burns up the fatty acids that collect in the blood stream. These fatty acids are believed to trigger the stress response, so the more fatty acids in the blood stream, the more likely an individual will overreact to stress.

2. **Learn relaxation techniques.** Some form of deep muscle relaxation training such as isometric exercises, where muscles are tightened, held, and relaxed is recommended. With deep muscle relaxation, individuals will be able to identify where tension is collecting in the body (back, neck, etc.) and be able to reduce the tension in those muscles.

3. **Identify and change thoughts and attitudes which intensify stress.** Changing negative self-talk into positive statements will break the negative cycle of stress. Telling yourself, "These feelings will not hurt me. I just need to relax" will reduce stress rather than increase it. Attitudes are more difficult to change but recognizing them will be the first step in reducing the stress they cause.

4. **Overcome avoidance.** Individuals can overcome avoidance by using a method called graded practice. Simply explained, graded practice is accomplished when an individual breaks down a stressful incident into manageable parts and practices each step until there is no stress involved. For example, Mary could learn to have Sunday dinner at her mother-in-laws house by practicing and mastering the following steps:

- With the support and presence of a friend, meet mother-in-law for coffee in a public place.
- Meet mother-in-law for coffee in a public place.
- Talk with mother-in-law on the telephone.
- Have mother-in-law come to house for coffee.
- Go to mother-in-law's house for brief visit.
- Go to mother-in-law's house for Sunday dinner.

For a detailed account of the stress reduction techniques discussed above, teachers are encouraged to read Living *with Stress and Anxiety* by Bob Whitmore.

Reducing Stress for Students

Following are eight strategies that Long and Duffner (1980) recommend teachers, who work with stressed students, use to make their classroom supportive, understanding and as stress-free as possible.

1. **Forming a Helping Adult Relationship.** To help students cope with stress, teachers need to look beyond the inappropriate behavior and focus on the feelings and stress causing the behavior. This can be done by teachers interpreting nonverbal communication, actively listening to verbal communication and labeling and acknowledging feelings of students who over react to stressful situations.

2. **Lowering School Pressure.** When students run the risk of becoming overwhelmed with stress and anxiety, teachers can temporarily postpone assignments and tests. For example, when a student is anxious about an upcoming court hearing which will determine whether she lives with her mother or her father, the teacher may extend the book report's due date a week.

3. **Redirecting Negative Feelings into Acceptable Behavior.** With this strategy, teachers allow students to express intense, explosive feelings in acceptable ways such as running laps, writing in journal, molding clay, doing art work, listening to music or dancing. In addition to decreasing tension, the condoned activities teach students socially acceptable ways to cope with stress.

4. **Teaching Students to Accept Disappointment and Failure.** Acknowledging for students that disappointment and defeat are normal in everyday life will help them realize that their setbacks were not a result of their badness or inadequacy. "It's okay to feel disappointed. You worked really hard to win that spelling bee." In addition, teachers can model that it is okay to feel disappointed when they are met with defeat. For example, a teacher walks into her room and says, "How disappointing! I worked really hard on this grant and didn't get it. I wanted money to buy new playground equipment. Now, we'll have to figure out another way to get money for our equipment."

5. **Have Students Complete One Task at a Time.** When students are trying to deal with overbearing anxieties they find it impossible to concentrate and their work goes unfinished. Once the work piles up, students feel like they'll never catch-up. With this strategy, a teacher removes the piles of unfinished work and encourages the students to complete one thing. When the child has finished the teacher praises heartily and directs the student to another task. With the additional attention and praise, the student becomes motivated to continue to work.

6. **Let Students Help Less Fortunate Students.** Students who view their life situations as hopeless benefit from helping less fortunate students in three ways. First, in the process of helping, students realize that there are others whose problems are more stressful than their own. Second, when individuals help others their own feelings of self-worth are strengthened. Third, helping allows individuals to focus on the present and future, rather than analyzing the past.

7. **Separating from the Stressful Environment Temporarily.** Recommending that students take breaks from their stressful environments will give them time

to do some problem solving. Spending the weekend with a friend, or going on the spectator bus to the football game, or participating in the car wash on Saturday, will help students resolve internal conflicts and give them time to find solutions to domestic problems.

8. **Help Students Seek Professional Help.** When stress becomes staggering and continuous for students, teachers should be storehouses of available mental health and medical services. Armed with the organizations' names and telephone numbers, teachers should encourage older students or the parents of younger children to seek professional help. Furthermore, teachers can refer students to a school psychologist, counselor, or nurse, if they are available.

Summary

With the reorganization of special education, our classrooms will contain "difficult" students or those stressed out survival oriented humans who come to school struggling with their own painful realities. Their minds will be consumed with such problems as alcoholism, drugs, crime, parental neglect, abandonment, brutality, and poverty. It is painfully obvious that teachers need to learn coping strategies in order to survive in these stress-filled classrooms. Even more apparent is the need for teachers to help students learn techniques to cope with stress in productive ways.

Three important concepts developed within this paper need reiterating. First, since stress is prevalent in today's classrooms, it is necessary for teachers to become knowledgeable about stress and its affects physically, psychologically and behaviorally on students and themselves. Second, teachers need to understand the dynamics of stress. With this knowledge, they will have a choice to stay out of power struggles with students feeling stressed. Finally, when teachers learn ways to reduce their own stress, they will be better prepared to develop stress-free environments, where the focus is on understanding, supporting and teaching new skills to stressed out students.

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SELF-CONTROL STAGE

1. What behaviors does the student typically exhibit during this stage?

____ sullenness
____ withdraws into fantasy
____ denies
____ "typical" behavior for the student
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

2. What supportive techniques should be used during this stage?

____

____

____

3. What punishment techniques, if any, should be used during this stage?

____

____

____

4. What teacher interventions should be used at a later time to assist student in gaining more self-control?

____

____

____

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

1. How are parents to be notified of crisis? ____________________

2. Who else should be notified of crisis? ____________________

____

3. How should crisis be documented? ____________________

Student Crisis Plan Sheet

Student Name ____________________

Teacher Name ____________________

ENVIRONMENTAL/PERSONNEL CONSIDERATIONS

1. Describe how you can obtain assistance when it is needed.

____

____

____

2. At which stage should outside assistance be sought?

____ Frustration Stage
____ Aggression Stage
____ Defensiveness Stage
____ Self-Control Stage

3. Which school personnel are available to provide assistance?

____ school psychologist
____ paraprofessional
____ other (please specify)
____ social worker
____ principal

4. Where is the nearest exit? *(specify room or school)* ____________________

5. When should it be used by others in the classroom?

____ Frustration Stage
____ Aggression Stage
____ Defensiveness Stage
____ Self-Control Stage

6. Are there any extenuating circumstances that others should know about this student (i.e., medications, related medical conditions, home situation)?

____

____

____

FRUSTRATION STAGE

1. What environmental factors/activities or antecedents upset the student?

____ transition
____ teacher criticism
____ unplanned change
____ hard assignment
____ crowds
____ classmate conflict
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

2. How does the child behave when becoming upset?

____ bites nails
____ argues
____ swears
____ fidgets
____ stares
____ refuses to work
____ raises voice
____ grimaces
____ bites lip
____ taunts others
____ lowers voice
____ tenses muscles
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

3. Does the child complain of any of the following somatic symptoms?

____ headache
____ stomachache
____ not applicable
____ other (please describe) ____________________

3. Is there a time connection between complaints of illness and aggression?

____ yes
____ no
not applicable

4. Should the student be sent to the nurse? ____ yes ____ no

5. What interventions should be used at this stage?

____ hurdle help
____ antiseptic bouncing
____ interest boosting
____ ignoring
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

DEFENSIVENESS STAGE

1. What behaviors does the student exhibit during the Defensiveness Stage?

____ student verbally lashes out at teacher
____ student verbally lashes out at students
____ student threatens to strike teacher
____ student threatens to strike students
____ student withdraws from teacher
____ student attempts to leave classroom
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

2. What teacher interventions should be used during the Defensiveness Stage?

____ restating classroom rules
____ restating contractual agreement
____ reminding student about token economy
____ redirecting student
____ giving student a choice of consequences
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

AGGRESSION STAGE

1. What form(s) of aggression are likely to be displayed by the student?

____ biting
____ hitting peers
____ hitting teacher
____ kicking
____ destructing property
____ running
____ hitting self
____ shouting
____ spitting
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________

2. What intervention should be used at this stage?

____
____
____
____

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____ unplanned change
____ hard assignment
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____ antiseptic bouncing
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________
____ other (please describe) ____________________
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____ ignoring

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____ destructing property
____ running
____ hitting self
____ shouting
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____
____
____
____

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Figure 2.1

STUDENT SUPPORT PLAN FOR MALCOLM

Student Strengths:

sense of humor
excellent artist
likes to cook
bright
intelligent
loves rock and roll
great math skills
wants to be with others

Activity/Class: Algebra II
Instructor(s): Ms. Latifah
Mr. Almedia

Student Supports:

- When assigning tasks, show relevance of task to other school work or personal life.
- Use peer partners or cooperative groups to locate answers to math problems.
- Make the activity feel like a game.
- Give a leadership role by having him explain a process or concept to the class. Pick a concept that you know he will do well.
- Help Malcolm find a job.
- Plan for transition for when he leaves school.
- Keep him focused in class by using hands-on activities.
- Have Malcolm be a peer tutor for an underclassman.
- Have Malcolm lead class discussion.

Challenging Behavior:

- Abusive language: Shouts, swears and insults.
- Outbursts: Slams furniture and books while storming out of the room.

Communication of Behavior:

- Avoidance of failure
- Self-regulation
- Attention

Response When Behavior Occurs:

- Ignore the inappropriate behavior and reinforce the [illegible]
- Move closer and stand [illegible] him.
- Have him make an apology and repair the relationship by doing a favor for the person he acted out on.
- Process with him what he [illegible] instead.
- Peer partner provides feedback and encouragement [illegible]

Replacement Behavior:

- Teach him that it is appropriate to speak out, yet he needs to practice appropriate tone of voice without swearing.
- Relaxation exercises to calm himself down and regulate himself.
- Going "on a mission" when he feels the need to blow off steam.
- Teach him to ask for help when he feels he can't do a problem.

How to Teach the Replacement Behavior:

- Role play with entire class how they can "speak out" without getting upset or upsetting the other person.
- Role play using a cue to go on a "mission" and practice going to a safe place to cool off.
- Frequent feedback and guided practice of the appropriate behavior.
- Provide multiple opportunities to use the skills within the class period.

If individualized instructional materials are necessary, who will develop the student's materials?

Ms. Maguire

Who will support the instructor to implement the plan?

Mrs. Yuan

Other Relevant Skills:

- Study skills
- Advanced painting
- Singles cooking

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Topper, K., Williams, W., Leo, K., Hamilton, R., & Fox, T. (1994). Establish a team. In K. Topper, W. Williams, K. Leo, R. Hamilton, and T. Fox. *A positive approach to understanding and addressing challenging behaviors* (pp. 29 - 35). Burlington: University Affiliated Program of Vermont, Center for Developmental Disabilities.

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Chapter 3

Establish a Team

Introduction

Genuine family-educator collaboration can be a powerful vehicle for success and coping. Working together during stressful times requires families and educators to disregard previous failed attempts to work as a team and to adopt a new way of thinking about collaboration. The following checklists are provided for you, and other members of teams you participate on, to assess and reflect upon how you may help each other develop more trusting relationships, improve problem solving, and avoid conflicts. They are adapted from guidelines for establishing and maintaining partnerships generated by the Federation of Families for Children's Mental Health.[4]

Collaboration Checklist for Educators

☐ Do I really believe that families are my equal, and in fact, are experts on their children?

☐ Do I speak plainly and avoid jargon?

☐ Do I actively involve families in all team tasks including developing, reviewing, evaluating and revising support plans?

☐ Do I meet at times and places convenient for the family?

☐ Do I respect the values, choices and preferences of the family?

☐ Do I share information with other professionals to ensure that services are not duplicated and that families do not expend unnecessary energy accessing services?

☐ Do I show the same respect for the value of families' time as I do for my own time by becoming familiar with pertinent student information before team meetings?

☐ Do I recognize and enhance the variety of strengths and coping styles of the family?

☐ Do I encourage the family to bring a friend or advocate?

☐ Do I tell each family about other families in similar situations, recognizing parents as a major source of support and information?

Collaboration Checklist for Families

☐ Do I believe I am an equal partner with educators and do my share of problem solving and planning to help my child?

☐ Do I clearly express my own needs and the needs of my family to educators in an assertive manner?

☐ Do I treat educators as individuals and avoid letting past negative experiences get in the way of a good working relationship?

☐ Do I communicate quickly with educators when significant changes and events occur?

☐ Do I maintain realistic expectations for educators, myself, and my child?

Collaboration Checklist for All Team Members

☐ Do I express hope through my attitudes and words, avoid blaming and stating absolutes like "always" and "never"?

☐ Do I initially agree to meet once a week?

☐ Do I show up to meetings on time and stay for the whole meeting?

☐ Do I help ensure that meetings are a safe place for all team members to express their feelings and thoughts (I avoid passing judgment on others)?

☐ Do I resolve and encourage other team members to resolve personal conflicts outside of team meetings?

☐ Do I commit sufficient time and energy to develop a support plan (Set aside at least 12 hours)?

☐ Do I avoid the temptation to develop a plan without understanding the communication of the student's behavior?

☐ Do I distinguish between fact and opinion when discussing challenging behavior?

☐ Do I follow through and complete tasks in a timely fashion?

What Is a Collaborative Team?

Collaborative student support teams are formed to provide support to students, their teachers and families. Collaborative teams can be composed of as few as two people, with varying perspectives and areas of knowledge and expertise. Team members work towards shared goals, equally assume leadership roles and task responsibilities, adopt group norms, and establish a process for solving problems and resolving conflicts. In other words, team members sink or swim together! The key is that members are supported and are not alone in addressing difficult challenges.

Common Team Functions for Student Support Teams[5]

- Provide support to the student's teachers.
- Enable student to have friends.
- Provide support to the student and his/her peers.
- Develop family support, communication and involvement.
- Problem solve specific learning or behavior issues with the student.
- Incorporate a prosocial skills curriculum into the classroom for all students.
- Identify and access necessary school and community resources.
- Develop long range educational plans for the student.
- Develop transition plans for movement to the next grade or school or adult services.
- Identify staff and family information and education needs.
- Re-assess classroom rules and discipline policies in regards to the student's strengths and needs.
- Develop, implement and evaluate specific instructional programs.

Who Should Be on the Team?

Should students and their peers be members of support teams?

Students need to be equal members of their support team. We have had success with students as young as 8 years old participating in all components of the planning process. They, better than anyone else, know what strategies will help them cope with frustrating situations. Empowering students as an equal team member can help them learn to solve problems, manage their negative emotions, improve their self-concept and enable them to develop and attain individual goals.

In addition, students should be provided the opportunity of inviting a peer to be a member of their team. (Confidentiality is maintained because the student chooses who to share this experience with and the team emphasizes the importance of confidentiality). Peers can provide moral support during the meetings and generate unique solutions to problems.

Should family members be included on support teams?

Yes. Family members know the student best, are there for the student on a daily basis, and are going to have to live with the consequences of the action taken by the team. *So why do educators sometimes experience difficulty working with families on teams?* Part of the issue may relate to differing perspectives, values and priorities, given their different roles with respect to the student. Parents often have more holistic and long term goals, while teachers are frequently concerned with current academic achievements. This is exemplified by the comments of Diane (Joseph's teacher).

> *During a recent team meeting there were two Math teachers expressing interest in having Joseph join their class. But unfortunately Alicia (Joseph's mother), Joseph and I were unable to agree on which Math teacher would best meet Joseph's needs. Alicia and I were looking at the issue from entirely different perspectives. I was focusing on Joseph's academic performance and weighing how the decision would impact on staff time whereas Alicia was more concerned with how the decision would impact on Joseph's whole life. I eventually realized that it was more important to go along with Alicia's choice of teacher. In the long run it would be better to have Joseph in a class that his mother was behind 100% and was willing to support. That way the teacher and Alicia could work together.*

Listening to different perspectives can generate a comprehensive plan that is beneficial to everyone. In addition, when planning a support system for a student with challenging behaviors, the family can be the school's greatest resource. We recommend involving the family in *all* aspects of planning right from the beginning.

Some benefits of family participation

- Knowledge of the full history of the student and a total picture of what is going on in the child's life.
- In-depth knowledge of the student's strengths, interests and needs, and the skills the student needs to function outside of school settings.
- Knowledge/ongoing experience of the most useful strategies for dealing with the student's behavioral challenges.
- Knowledge of the key support/resource people in the student's life.
- Knowledge of recent or ongoing stressors that may impact on the student's functioning at school.
- Knowledge of ways to promote prevention, teaching and response strategies across settings.

Example strategies for obtaining family input

Educators sometimes find that despite their requests, the family does not attend team meetings on a consistent basis. Rather than labeling the family as "uninterested" or "uncooperative", the team members should consider possible barriers to the family's attendance. These may include: lack of information about the nature of the school meetings, negative past experiences with the school (i.e., use of education "lingo", not feeling listened to, previous experience of feeling judged or blamed, not feeling like an equal member in decision-making) and practical issues (i.e., lack of childcare, transportation problems, conflict with job schedule). Consequently schools should consider the following suggestions when attempting to enlist family involvement on school teams:

- Visit with the family and discuss the need for developing a team to support the student.
- Encourage the family to participate in identifying who should be on the team.
- Invite the family members to be full participating members of the team.
- Set an initial meeting date, time and location with the family to insure their ability to attend.
- Encourage the family to bring a friend or advocate.
- Offer assistance in finding child care for meetings.
- Offer transportation to the meeting.

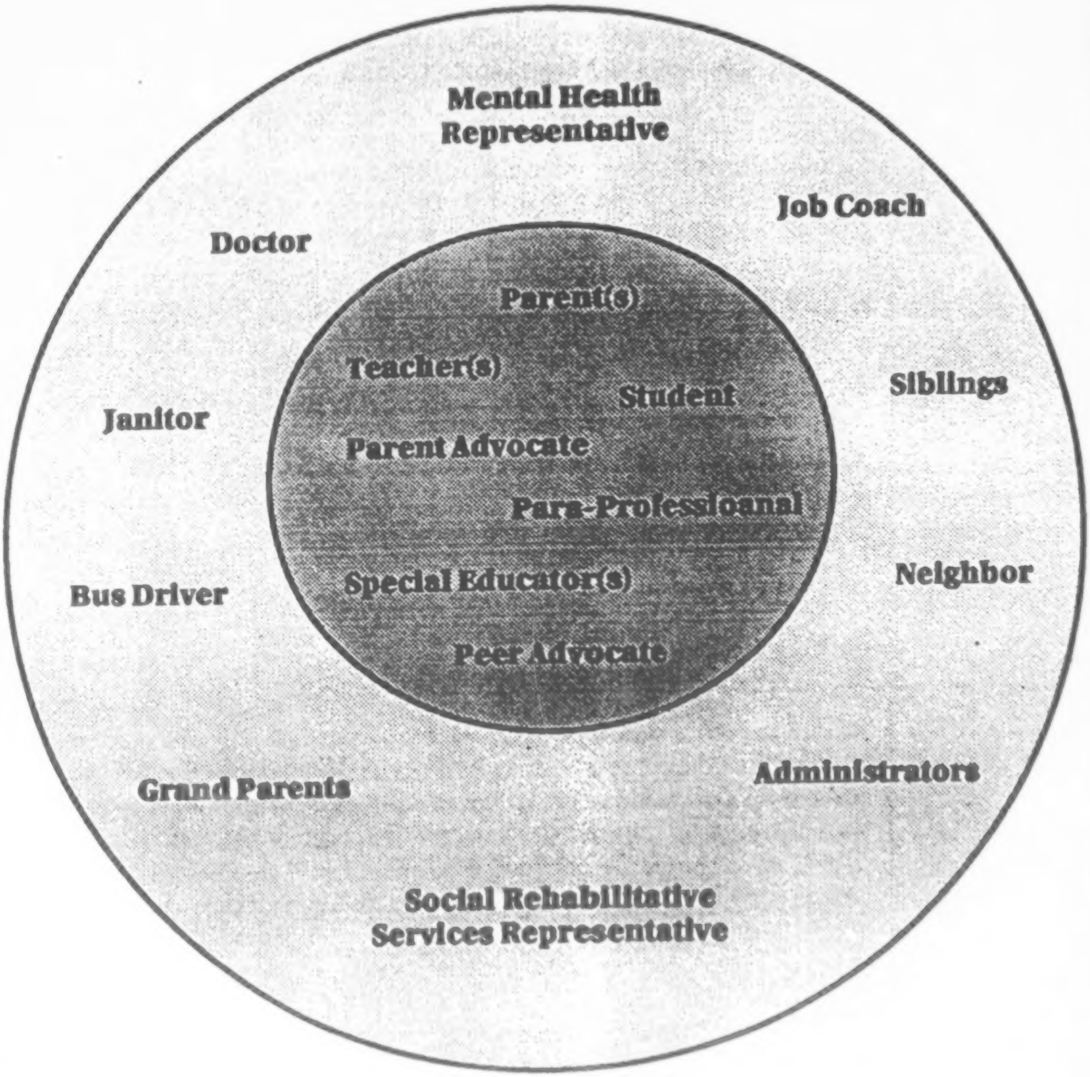
Who Else Should Be on the Student Support Team?

Ideally, the team would be selected jointly by the family, the student and the teacher. Team members should be the people most involved with the student on a day-to-day basis. Some students and families may be involved with or in need of support services through community health, mental health, child protective services, advocacy organizations, self-help groups or through private service providers (e.g., medical doctor, counselor, psychologist, visiting nurse). These service providers should also be involved in the Student Support Team process. At a minimum, community service providers and school staff must be aware of what each is doing to minimize duplication of services and ensure that services provided in school and in the community are not counter-productive, in direct conflict with each other, or confusing to students and their families.

Figure 3.1 illustrates potential team membership. The inner circle depicts the potential team members who meet on a weekly basis. The outer circle identifies other individuals who may be involved in the student's life but would not be needed for every team meeting.

Figure 3.1

STUDENT SUPPORT TEAM MEMBERSHIP



How Do Collaborative Support Teams Make Decisions?

Collaborative teams make decisions by consensus. In this regard all team members must agree to all decisions. Coming to consensus on tough issues is not an easy task, but it is a necessary task. Knowing that consensus must be reached forces teams to become more creative and open to ideas when differences of opinion are voiced. Our experience is that coming to consensus takes more time, but a decision that everyone agrees to is a decision that will be implemented.

How Do Collaborative Support Teams Solve Problems?

There are many problem solving models from which teams can choose. However, common elements typically include the following steps:

1. recognize that there is a problem,
2. define the problem,
3. think of many solutions,
4. decide what to do,
5. try a solution, and
6. evaluate the results.

In brainstorming solutions it is useful to generate as many responses as possible. By forcing yourself to think beyond the obvious and suspending judgement, latter responses are often the most creative and can have the greatest potential for success.

How Do We Brainstorm?

In brainstorming, team members are given 2 or 3 minutes of **individual think time.** During think time each team member writes all their ideas on a piece of scratch paper. Next each member provides one of their ideas per turn in a round robin format (e.g., moving clockwise around the table). The recorder writes the idea on a flip chart or blackboard so everyone can see each idea as it is stated. The round robin continues until everyone has all of their ideas written on the chart. During round robin team members are encouraged to be creative and offer "far out" ideas. Other team members are not allowed to make comments or judgments about the ideas presented. There is no discussion or even rewording of ideas. Ideas are simply stated and written. When all ideas are exhausted the team takes 2 or 3 minutes of quiet wait time to see if any more ideas pop up. Typically during this time

Abrams, B. J. (1992). Values clarification for students with emotional disabilities. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 24* (3), 28 - 33.

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Values Clarification for Students with Emotional Disabilities

Brian J. Abrams

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Affective education programs seek to promote students' emotional and social development by helping them develop an awareness and understanding of their feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and values (Epanchin & Monson, 1982). Morse, Ardizzone, Macdonald, and Pasick (1980) have identified three goals of affective education: (1) to develop an adequate self-concept combined with self-esteem; (2) to maximize the prosocial potential of the student; and (3) to promote positive emotional expression.

Students with emotional disabilities may exhibit a variety of maladaptive behaviors and emotional problems, many of which indicate a need for affective growth. Many writers believe that affective education is important for *all* children with exceptionalities but that it is essential for students with emotional disabilities (Epanchin & Monson, 1982; Morse et al., 1980; Werth & Sindelar, 1987). Miller (1976) discussed 17 affective teaching models; one of the most widely researched of these is values clarification. This article discusses how values clarification can be used by special education teachers to meet the affective needs of students with emotional disabilities.

Background

The classic work in values clarification is *Values and Teaching* by Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966, 1978), which discusses the basic theory and methods of values clarification. In it, the authors express their belief that a number of student behavior problems such as apathy, inconsistency, uncertainty, flightiness, and overdissension may be the result of confusion and disturbance in their values.

Values are beliefs that have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components; they are principles people use to choose between alternatives, resolve conflicts, and make decisions (Rokeach, 1973). Values provide a stable frame of reference, give meaning and order to our lives, and are fundamental to our sense of identity (Blaker, 1982). Students suffering from value confusion lack goals and direction; their behavior is often inconsistent and aimless.

The assumptions behind the valuing theory of Raths and colleagues are that (a) human beings can arrive at values by an intelligent process of choosing, prizing, and behaving, and (b) values should relate to one's world and serve as a guide to a satisfying and intelligent way of life. The major focus of the theory is that children who are given help in using the valuing process will behave in ways that are less apathetic, confused, and irrational and more positive, purposeful, and enthusiastic than those of their peers who do not receive this help (Raths et al., 1966).

Proponents have written many books dealing with methods, strategies, and activities for using values clarification in the classroom (see Hawley & Hawley, 1975; Howe & Howe, 1975; Simon, Howe, & Kirschenbaum, 1972; Smith, 1977). These activities encourage students to examine their attitudes, beliefs, interests, and feelings (e.g., "List 10 things you love to do"; "Describe a personal hero and the qualities you admire in that person"). The activities can be used with individuals, small groups, or an entire class. A key element of many of these strategies is the *clarifying* response (Raths et al., 1966)—a way of responding to a student's comment or behavior that encourages the student to reflect on his or her feelings, choices, beliefs, or values (e.g., "How does that idea affect your life?" "Is that important to you?" What alternatives have you considered?").

Values clarification can also be integrated into the curriculum, whether the subject is social studies, science, reading, health, or something else. Several authors have discussed how subject mat-

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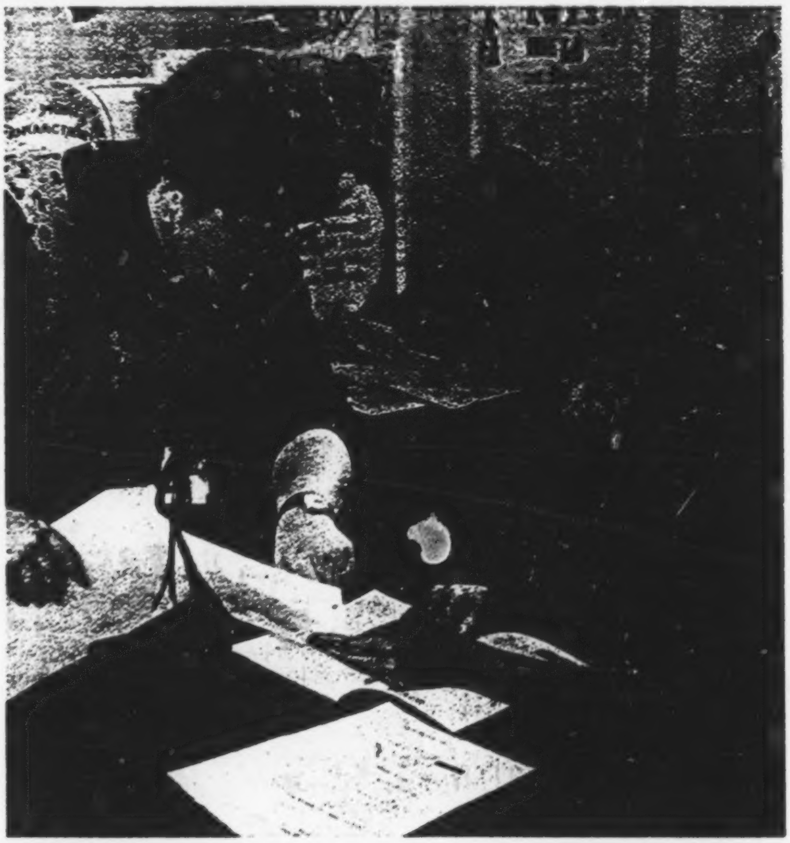
ter can be taught on three levels: facts (e.g., "Who wrote the Gettysburg Address in 1863?"); concepts (e.g., "What are the main ideas or themes of the Gettysburg Address?"); and values (e.g., "If you had been the mother of a slain Union soldier or slain Confederate soldier, what would your reaction have been to the speech?" or "The Gettysburg Address was given at the dedication of a cemetery. What words would you like spoken about you at your eulogy?") (Curwin & Curwin, 1974; Harmin, Kirshenbaum, & Simon, 1973).

Benefits of Values Clarification

The goal of values clarification is to have students explore their beliefs and values and become more aware of how these beliefs and values influence their choices and behavior. The teacher does not attempt to transmit the "right" values, but provides a safe, nonthreatening, nonjudgmental environment.

Values clarification is concerned more with the valuing process than with specific values. Table 1 shows the skills involved in the valuing process according to three different authors. Values clarification seeks to develop student skills in all of these areas of development, which should result in student behavior that is more purposeful and satisfying. These areas of skill development are important to most students with emotional disabilities.

Researchers have examined the effects of values clarification interventions on a wide range of dependent variables including academic achievement, attitudes toward school, level of self-esteem, value clarity, personal adjustment, and others. They have studied student populations ranging from elementary school through college. Although many of these studies have been criticized for lacking adequate control groups, a majority of the research has shown that values clarification is effective in improving student achievement on many cognitive and affective measures (see Kirschenbaum, 1977; Lockwood, 1978; Swisher, Vicary, & Nadenichek, 1983).



One activity that encourages students to examine their own interests and feelings is to ask them to "list 10 things you love to do."

Working with Students with Emotional Disabilities

There has been little research on the effects of values clarification on students with emotional disabilities. One study of the values of students with emotional disabilities compared the value rankings and value stability (a measure of value confusion) of two groups of adolescents with emotional disabilities (conduct disorder and anxiety-withdrawal) and normal adolescents. The findings suggest that both types of adolescents with emotional disabilities are similar to normal adolescents in their stated values and the stability of those values (Abrams, 1988).

To benefit from values clarification, students need to have reached a stage of readiness for the skills listed in Table 1. In an attempt to determine which affective interventions are most effective for specific students, McKinnon and Kiraly (1984) have developed the Affective Education Continuum Model. This model matches specific affective education strategies with the students' level of socio-emotional development and management needs. At Level 1 (e.g., behavior modification and the engineered classroom), students need maximum structure for learning and strategies are teacher directed. At Level 2 (e.g., cognitive behavior modification and contracting), students show some self-control skills and strategies are mutually directed by teacher and student. At Level 3 (e.g., values clarification and peer tutoring), students exhibit appropriate self-management skills and strategies are more student directed, reflecting students' interests, goals, needs, and feelings). At this level, students can usually control their behavior and begin to focus on attitudes, feelings, and beliefs.

McKinnon and Kiraly believe that values clarification is most effective for students at Level 3 since the three goals of Level 3 are consistent with those of values clarification to increase self-esteem, develop a higher sense of self-awareness in relation to others, and improve interpersonal skills. Values clarification is clearly appropriate for students at Level 3, and it may benefit students at the later stages of Level 2.

Although only one book of values clarification activities has been written for students with emotional and learning disabilities (Simon & O'Rourke, 1977), most of the other publications on values clarification can be adapted for use with these students. Epanchin and Monson (1982) have offered the following guidelines:

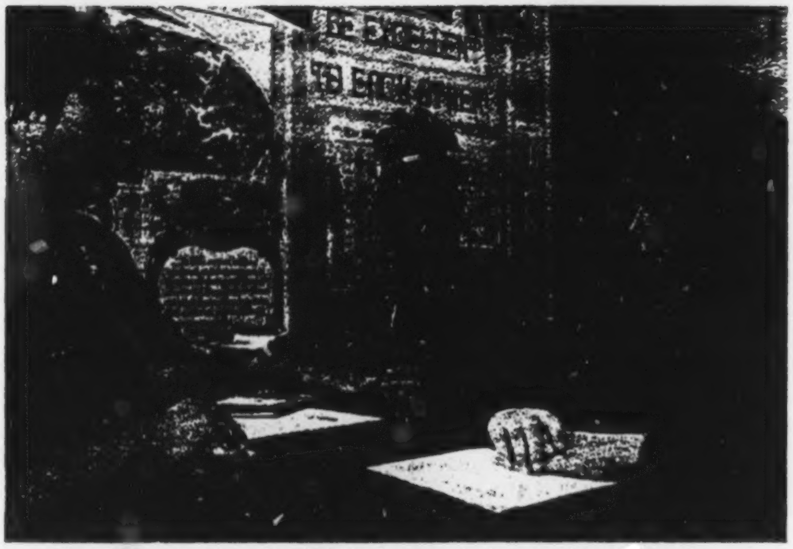
1. Match the objectives and activities to the students' developmental needs and the level of trust and support in the class.
2. Evaluate the appropriateness of each activity for each child
3. Elicit feedback from students.
4. Use outside resources for assistance.

Simon and Olds (1976) have identified several rules for using values clarification:

1. Accept other points of view.
2. There are no right or wrong answers.
3. Anyone can "pass" (each student has the right of privacy and is not pressured to reveal information that he or she may feel uncomfortable about).

A key element of any successful values clarification program is how effective the teacher is at creating a classroom climate of trust, openness, and cohesiveness. For students to examine their attitudes, beliefs, and values, they must feel that they are valued members of a group in a safe, nonthreatening, nonjudgmental environment. Establishing such an environment is a difficult task for teachers working with students with emotional disabilities, who are often extremely critical of themselves and others. Teaching students to respect other points of view, listen to other students' feelings and beliefs, and communicate their own feelings and beliefs in front of peers and the teacher is a slow, gradual process, but an important one.

To evaluate the effectiveness of values clarification some observable behavior must be measured. Teachers should have a clear idea of their goals so that they can define the goals and specific behavioral objectives operationally (e.g., "George will display an increased tolerance for the ideas of others as evidenced by his listening to the ideas of others, without any critical comments, 3 out of 5 days a week"). Some long-term effects of values clarification may take years to become evident, but teachers can measure the short-term effects by writing objectives that refer to the specific skills that their programs are aimed at.



As students feel more trusting and comfortable, they enjoy sharing parts of their inner self.

Table 1

Three Views of Values Clarification: Skills Involved in the Valuing Process

1. The Valuing Process: Criteria for a Full Value (Raths et al., 1966).		
	A. Choosing:	1. Freely.
		2. From alternatives.
		3. After thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.
	B. Prizing:	1. Cherishing, being happy with choice.
		2. Willing to affirm choice publicly.
	C. Acting:	1. Acting upon the choice.
		2. Acting repeatedly with a pattern or consistency.
2. The Valuing Process (Kirschenbaum, 1973).		
	A. Feeling:	1. Being open to one's inner experience.
		(a) Awareness of one's inner experience.
		(b) Acceptance of one's inner experience.
	B. Thinking:	1. Thinking on all seven levels (memory, translation, application, interpretation, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.)
		2. Employing critical thinking skills.
		(a) Distinguishing fact from opinion.
		(b) Distinguishing supported from unsupported arguments.
		(c) Analyzing propaganda, stereotypes, etc.
		3. Employing logical thinking (logic).
		4. Employing creative thinking.
		5. Employing fundamental cognitive skills.
		(a) Language use.
		(b) Mathematical skills.
		(c) Research skills.
	C. Communicating (verbally and nonverbally):	1. Sending clear messages.
		2. Listening empathetically.
		3. Drawing out.
		4. Asking clarifying questions.
		5. Giving and receiving feedback.
		6. Engaging in conflict resolution.
	D. Choosing:	1. Generating and considering alternatives.
		2. Thoughtfully considering consequences, pros and cons.
		3. Choosing strategically.
		(a) Setting goals.
		(b) Gathering data.
		(c) Solving problems.
		(d) Planning.
		4. Choosing freely.
	E. Acting:	1. Acting with repetition.
		2. Acting with a pattern and consistency.
		3. Acting skillfully, competently.
3. Values Clarification as Development of Student Interaction Skills (Casteel & Stahl, 1975).		
	A. Communicating	
	B. Empathizing	
	C. Problem Solving	
	D. Assenting and Dissenting	
	E. Decision Making	
	F. Personal Consistency	

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Getting Started

When values clarification is first introduced into a special education classroom, some students are excited and see this as an opportunity to examine and discuss issues that are relevant to their lives and interests. Other students are suspicious and fearful of disclosing personal information; they will spend most of the initial classes observing and listening. As they feel more comfortable and trusting, they will begin to enjoy sharing parts of their inner selves with the group. Teachers must be accepting of each student's right to privacy and of student responses that are in opposition to their own. When a teacher models respect and acceptance for each student, the students will begin to show respect and acceptance for each other.

Initially, the value-clarifying activities should be of high interest and low risk, requiring little self-disclosure. As the group develops a level of trust and cohesiveness, the teacher can introduce activities that seek more openness, examination, and sharing of feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and values.

Following are several suggestions for special education teachers who wish to implement values clarification programs in their classes:

1. Increase your knowledge of the theory and methods behind this approach through readings, workshops, and classes.
2. Assess the developmental needs and interests of each student as part of your planning. Before you begin your program, determine each student's level of self-control and proficiency at skills involved in the valuing process (e.g., Do you need to focus on developing listening skills? Does one student need extra assistance in generating alternatives, or learning to accept his or her feelings?). Get to know each student and learn his or her value indicators (goals, interests, feelings, needs, beliefs, attitudes and worries). This will aid you in selecting activities that are relevant to your students' lives.
3. Know where you want to go; be able to state clearly what your goals and objectives are.
4. Discuss your program activities and objectives with your supervisors and secure their approval.
5. Introduce your program slowly (perhaps one 30-minute activity per week); be patient with yourself and your new program.
6. Evaluate each activity either formally (through a questionnaire or form) or informally (by eliciting comments from students and writing down your observations): Did the topic gain the interest of students? Did the activity require too much self-disclosure? Was the task too difficult for the class? Did the students understand the rules? Were they able to follow the rules?
7. Avoid moralizing and preaching; practice acceptance. Listen carefully to your comments about your students' ideas, beliefs, and feelings. Try to practice acceptance during the values clarification class, and as you become more accepting, extend this attitude throughout the school day. You are accepting of feelings and ideas, but not behavior. You still have class rules and cannot allow students to hurt themselves and others or prevent other students from learning.
8. As you become more skillful and comfortable using this approach, begin to integrate values clarification into the curriculum. Begin by periodically asking clarifying questions about characters from literature or history, and then include clarifying questions when you are teaching other subjects.

Conclusion

Special education teachers can use values clarification to help students increase their awareness of the relationships among their choices, values, and behavior. Increasing each student's awareness and value clarity can result in more positive, purposeful, and prosocial behavior. Remember, values clarification is a life-long process for everyone.

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What If? chart. In G. Rhode, W. R. Jenson, H. K. & Reavis. (1994). *The tough kid tool box* (p. 195). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

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What If? Chart

WHAT IF YOU DO?	WHAT IF YOU DON'T?

Serious Behavior Clause(s):

Jenson, W. (1993, Fall). The "Yes" and "No" bag: A practical program for classroom consequences, *The Best Times*, p. 3.

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Fall, 1993

Interventions Corner

The "Yes" and "No" Bag:

A PRACTICAL PROGRAM FOR CLASSROOM CONSEQUENCES

– William R. Jenson, Debra Andrews, and Ken Reavis

Teachers often run out of ideas for practical consequences for behaviors in their classrooms. Most consequences tend to be negative or effect only one or two students. The "Yes"-"No" Bag program is an easy to implement system that can be used with the whole class. The system is also primarily positive, but it can also be used to reduce inappropriate behaviors. In addition, this program is simple and does not take a lot of preparation time or expense.

The "Yes"-"No" is a variation of the "I Owe You a NO" program of Dr. Ray Beck. Its current application was developed by Mr. Allen James, a school psychologist/social worker in Granite School District. With this program a series of Yes and No cards are made, approximately 50 each. The included sheet of Yes and No cards (also pictured below) can be copied, laminated, and then cut up for the cards. An opaque container or bag is also needed. For the class reward, a reinforcement system is needed such as a Mystery Motivator (a sealed envelope with a reward written on a piece of paper) or a reward spinner (a circle with rewards written on it with an arrow that can be spun to randomly select the reward). It also helps if the teacher has established classroom rules posted.

The program works on basic probability. The teacher looks to catch students following the classroom rules. For example, being on time, paying attention, following a direction, working independently, or handing in an assignment on time. The teacher describes the student's behavior and puts a Yes card in the bag. For example, "Stevan you handed your assignment in on time. I'm going to put a Yes card in the bag for the class." Similarly, if the teacher observes a student breaking a rule or being inappropriate, he describes the behavior an puts a No card in the bag. For instance, "Dan you were talking without permission, I have to put a No card in the bag." For the last 30 to 45 minutes of the day, the teacher picks a student to come to the front of the class who randomly picks a card from the bag. The student should not look into the container of cards, and the cards should be thoroughly mixed up. If the picked card is a Yes, the whole class gets the reward (i.e., Mystery Motivator or what was spun on the Reward Spinner). Good classroom rewards can be the teacher reads a story, pop corn party, students get to talk with friends for the last half hour, or see part of a movie video). The reward should be a surprise that adds suspense to the program. The unknown or random aspects of Mystery Motivators and reward Spinners are great for building suspense.

Yes and No Cards

If the student had picked a No card, the students would continue to work on their academic subjects for the last part of the day and no reward is given. It does not take long for students to figure out that the more Yes cards are in the bag means a higher probability of a class reward. A lot of No cards in the bag means that they will probably miss the days reward and half to work the last part of the day.

There are a couple of things that a teacher can do to make this program even more effective. When the program is started the first week, salt the bag by putting more Yes cards in the bag before class starts. This helps to ensure a positive beginning. Second, look for appropriate behaviors to add Yes cards to the bag. It is all too easy to add No cards for inappropriate behaviors. Third, enhance student anticipation by giving hints about what the reward might be. Fourth, describe the behaviors and link them to the classroom rules. Don't say, "I'm putting a No in the bag because you were inappropriate." Describe the behaviors you want to increase and decrease. Fifth, if one or two students try to sabotage the program by intentionally getting a lot of No cards for the class, make them a team by themselves. When they act appropriately, they can rejoin the whole class team.

A major advantage of the "Yes"-"No" program is that it can be used each day. At the beginning of the day, dump the previous days cards from the bag and start all over again. Most important, make this program positive and it will have a class wide impact on appropriate behaviors. Who could say "No" to such a great program? *Thanks to Allen James for the great idea!*

Appendix B
School Interventions

Morgan, D. (1993, Winter). Quality practices in programs for students with behavioral disorders. *The Best Times*, pp. 1, 5.

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THE BEST TIMES

Behavioral and Educational Strategies for Teachers

Utah State Office of Education
Winter 1993 • Vol. 2 • No. 2

QUALITY PRACTICES IN PROGRAMS FOR STUDENTS WITH BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS

– by Dan Morgan

There is a growing body of knowledge and experience available that suggests there are programs, techniques, interventions, and strategies that can be effectively used in meeting the needs of students with behavioral disorders. This rich and varied storehouse of practices has been developed and has been successfully utilized in programs for these students. The common element among these practices is that they have been carefully field-tested and evaluated to determine that they are, in fact, effective.

Use Effective Instructional Practices

The use of empirically validated strategies applies, perhaps first and foremost, to classroom instruction. The research on classroom teaching has focused on identifying classroom management and instructional strategies that promote student achievement. What do we know about effective teaching? We do know that teachers can and do make a difference. There is also much that we do not yet know.

> *Teaching is a complex act. No single factor or characteristic can entirely explain the qualities of effective teaching.*

In fact, what works in some situations may not work in other school settings with different students, different subjects, or different instructional goals. There may be teachers who break all the rules and yet are very successful.

Monitor Progress Systematically

In special education, monitoring student performance has been recognized for some time as essential to quality instruction. Effective special education teachers constantly monitor their students by collecting objective performance data and deciding whether to continue a specific intervention program, modify it, or implement a new program based on analysis of the data.

Provide a Comprehensive Array of Services

Since many factors within and especially beyond the school affect a student's emotional and behavioral growth, the responsibility for this problem shifts from schools alone to many individuals and service providers. Addressing the needs of students with behavioral disorders often requires the active participation of a variety of caregivers from diverse professional backgrounds —educators, psychologists, social workers, psychiatrists, vocational rehabilitation counselors, juvenile justice workers. These individuals may be affiliated with a wide spectrum of service agencies and providers: education, corrections, mental health, social service, health, vocational rehabilitation.

More often than not, however, the way things really work is that each individual agency and each professional assigned to a specific student works alone, without the benefit of coordination or collaboration. Fragmentation and compartmentalization of services and a significant lack of coordination seem to be the rule insofar as services to students with behavioral disorders is concerned.

Involve Parents

Many children who have significant behavioral problems at school also display maladaptive behavior in their homes. Thus, the importance of involving parents in the overall educational program provided to students with behavioral disorders is clear. Common sense would seem to indicate that teachers should make a concerted effort to involve parents of these students in their child's program.

See "Quality Practices" – page 5...

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THE BEST TIMES
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Quality Practices *(from 1)*...

Actively Program for Generalization

The success of special education programs is often measured by the extent to which academic and behavioral improvements generalize, or transfer, from a special education setting to other places and people (e.g., mainstream classrooms, regular classroom teachers). Achieving generalization and maintenance is a key ingredient in the overall success of a student's special education program.

Focus on Prevention

The school's response to students with significant learning and behavior problems is highly varied. Behavior management systems are often implemented where the consequences for misbehavior are often emphasized over the consequences for appropriate behavior. In some instances, schools provide counseling in an effort to improve behavior. Rules and regulations governing student behavior are clarified and emphasized. These responses often tend to be reactive and reductive in nature, however. They occur only when the behavior problems have reached the high intensity, chronic stage, and their goal is to decrease or eliminate the problematic behavioral patterns as opposed to teaching new and more adaptive ways of behaving. Control and containment seems to be the school's primary modus operandi in dealing with the students who have emotional, psychological, social, and behavior problems.

Positive learning opportunities for students with behavioral disorders must be implemented on a proactive, preventative basis. This means that school personnel, parents, and community agencies must adopt the notion that it is far easier and better to increase new adaptive behaviors through positive, educative approaches than it is to decrease maladaptive behaviors through reductive approaches. For example, research indicates how teachers manage classrooms and student behavior is a key to how much productive learning occurs. The teacher who effectively manages classrooms acts much more than he or she reacts. How teachers prevent misbehavior is a more important determinant of classroom management skills than how they deal with problems after they occur. Although it is important for teachers to know how to respond to misbehavior, recent research on teacher effectiveness suggests that establishing and maintaining a productive and positive learning environment can reduce the frequency and magnitude with which disruptive student behavior occurs.

Involve Regular Education

Especially critical in the effort to improve services to students with behavioral disorders is the active participation and commitment of regular education to the goal of addressing the academic, emotional, social, and behavioral needs of students on a proactive basis. Specifically, there is a pressing need for special education and regular education to cooperate to develop strategies to accommodate students with behavioral disorders in regular classrooms.

To facilitate regular education's commitment and participati[illegible] special education's role needs to be one of a broader change agent as opposed to a direct service provider to a relatively small percentage of those students whose emotional and behavioral problems are most severe. That is, special education and special educators need to do the following: (a) serve as a model of appropriate and effective instructional practices for students with behavioral disorders, (b) influence the expansion of attention and commitment on the part of regular education to embrace a broader array of outcomes (i.e., emotional, psychological, behavioral, and social health), and (c) facilitate the school's commitment and preparedness to plan and deliver positively oriented curricula, instruction, and other support services.

Sustain the Intervention Effort

Given the complexity of the problems presented by students with behavioral disorders, it is somewhat amazing to realize that there are professionals and parents who expect, if not demand, "instant cures". If there is one thing we know for sure about working with students with behavioral disorders, it is that there are no easy answers. Those involved in the development, administration, and delivery of programs and services to student with behavioral disorders need to be prepared to provide appropriate services over an extended period of time.

All the quality practices presented here have certain features i[illegible] common. Active teacher and student involvement in teaching and learning, precise and functional assessment of instructional needs, continuous progress monitoring, reprogramming the social environment, and mobilizing resources beyond the classroom seem to fall out as basic ingredients of effective instructional programming. Perhaps the most salient characteristic permeating all the quality practices is the notion of POSITIVE EXPECTANCY: the almost passionate, "can do" belief that the primary mission of the school -- student learning and growth -- will be accomplished regardless of how difficult it may appear.

There are no quick and easy cures available for use with all students with behavioral disorders. However, a growing body of knowledge is available that suggest that there are instructional procedures that tend to produce positive changes predictably and consistently. We have termed these instructional procedures preferred practices. Preferred practices can be identified when the contributions of educational and psychological research to practice are recognized and understood. We believe that the field of special education for these students is at the point where we can now state with reasonable confidence that certain educational practices ought to be preferred over others because they facilitate desired changes in the student behavior.

This has been adapted from the first chapter of the second editio[illegible] of D.P. Morgan's and W.R. Jenson's currently-in-preparation of *Teaching Students with Behavioral Disorders: Preferred Practices.*

Verre, J. M. (1994). Planning and assessing programs and services for students with emotional and behavioral disabilities. In *Critical issues in urban special education* (pp. 1 -3). Boston: Harvard Graduate School of Education.

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Planning and Assessing Programs and Services for Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disabilities

A framework for the development and evaluation of programs and services for students with emotional and behavioral disabilities.

****

I. Program Purpose

A. Mission: The mission of the program is clearly articulated and in concert with the needs of students and the requirements of general education.

B. Theoretical Model: Program administrators and staff identify and communicate appropriate theoretical models, based on contemporary standards supported by relevant research, on which services and service delivery are established.

C. Goals and Objectives: Program goals and objectives are student-focused, concrete, measurable, reviewed and adjusted periodically, and communicated clearly.

D. Population: The program serves high risk, multiple problem students with emotional and/or behavioral disabilities whose needs cannot be met in any less restrictive setting.

E. Setting: The program provides services in the least restrictive, most integrated environment appropriate to meet the needs of the students, and with their non-disabled peers to the maximum extent feasible. Segregation from general education occurs when the nature and severity of student need is such that a general education placement with supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved in a manner satisfactory in providing some benefit to the student, after modifications to general education programs have proven unsuccessful in providing some benefit to the student, if the student is so disruptive that the education of other students in the general education setting is significantly impaired, or if the cost of a general education placement with appropriate modifications would be so great that it would have significant impact on the education of other students.

F. Options: The program is one of an array of options available to students and parents, including supplemental aids and services in general education settings.

May 2, 1994 John Verre, Harvard University

II. Program Quality

A. Services

1. **Curriculum:** The curriculum is student-centered, developmental, multicultural, experiential, diagnostic-prescriptive, multi-modal, individualized. The curriculum includes literacy, higher level academic skills, social development, and occupational awareness, exploration,- and preparation.

2. **Behavior Management:** The program provides a well-developed approach to the teaching of social skills that is systematic, developmental, data-driven, fair, inclusive, and clearly communicated to students and parents.

3. **Support Services:** The on-site services include crisis intervention; outreach to families and communities; liaison with other child-serving agencies; individual, group and family counseling; psychiatric evaluation, treatment, and consultation; clinical consultation to staff; comprehensive social, psychological, and neuropsychological assessment.

4. **Case Management:** The program utilizes a student-centered, interdisciplinary approach to the development, monitoring, and adjustment of individual education and treatment plans.

5. **Inclusion:** There are carefully-planned, well-structured opportunities for students in this program to participate in learning activities, in the school setting and in the community, with their non-disabled peers.

6. **Transition:** The program provides structures and support for movement of students to less restrictive placements in general education, training programs, and work.

7. **Record Keeping and Reporting:** There are well-developed, data-oriented systems of record keeping and reporting which include in-depth qualitative and quantitative assessment of student progress, and formative program reports.

8. **Parent Involvement:** The program includes a defined and comprehensive parent involvement system, providing parents opportunities to learn important skills, participate in the child's individual plan and program of services, and contribute to the planning and operation of the program.

9. Entry and Exit Criteria: The program uses specific, individually applied criteria to determine a student's need for services, and readiness for transition to a different type or level of services.

10. Early Intervention and Prevention: The program provides services beginning at the pre-school level, and emphasizes prevention for both students and their families.

B. Staffing

1. Qualifications: Program staff are appropriately credentialed in general and special education, and experienced in programs for students with EBD. Trainees are supervised by credentialed staff.

2. Number: There are sufficient numbers of staff to deliver the services required in the Individual Education Plans of enrolled students. High quality programs and services for students with EBD are usually staff intensive.

3. Composition: The gender, racial, ethnic, and language composition of the staff closely approximates that of the student population.

4. Supervision: Professional supervision is provided to staff at all levels.

5. Working Conditions: Program staff work under conditions comparable to those of their colleagues in general education. Staff of these programs need higher levels of personal, administrative, and clerical support.

6. Organizational Structure: There are clear lines of authority and accountability among staff.

7. Professional Development: There is an on-going program of professional development opportunities available to all staff, related to staff needs and the needs of students, and compatible with the identified theoretical models.

C. Operations

1. Policies and Procedures: The program has clearly defined, up-to-date administrative policies and procedures to govern program operation. They are collaboratively written, shared with all involved parties, reviewed periodically, and adjusted as necessary.

2. Administrative Support: Administrators at the program, school, and district level understand the needs of students and staff, and make decisions and take actions that are appropriate for the maintenance and improvement of the program.

3. Budget: The district provides a budget at least comparable to general education programs, and adequate for the maintenance and improvement of high quality, intensive services.

4. Facilities: The facilities used by the program are comparable to general education facilities in terms of appropriateness for the program purposes, adequacy of space, and quality of maintenance and repair.

5. Material, Supplies and Equipment: The program has access to resources that are at least comparable to those in general education programs, and sufficient to support the services required to meet the needs of the population.

6. Systematic Program Planning: The program utilizes a structured approach to short and long-term planning that includes needs and resource assessment, strategic design, formative evaluation, and regular review and adjustment.

Boys Town. (1994). *Boys Town Educational Model.* Kearney, NE: Boys Town.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

Boys Town Education Model

PROBLEM: School Discipline

For the past 25 years, discipline has been identified as one of the three biggest problems in American schools in the Phi Delta Kappan/Gallup poll of educators. In 17 of those 25 years, educators considered it the number one problem.

SOLUTION: Boys Town Education Model

What does the Model do?

The Boys Town Education Model is a training program that:

- Shows educators how to teach social skills to students and to make the teaching of social skills part of the regular school curriculum.
- Gives educators a systematic way to address appropriate and inappropriate behavior.
- Provides teachers with a definition of when students should be referred to the office and procedures for doing so.
- Allows educators to focus on teaching rather than controlling behavior as students learn how to better manage their own behavior.

How effective is the Model?

Research conducted on schools using the Model indicates:

- Students' time-on-task increases significantly.
- Office referrals decrease as much as 50-75% during the first year of implementation.
- The amount of time teachers spend dealing with disruptive behavior decreases.
- Students report they get along better with other students, teachers, and their parents.
- Parents report seeing a difference in their children's behavior.

What does the Model consist of?

There are four program components in the Boys Town Education Model:

1. **Social Skills Curriculum**—This is a set of 16 basic social behaviors that encompass adult relations, peer relations, school rules, and classroom behaviors.
2. **Teaching Interactions**—These techniques combine efforts to manage student behavior with the teaching of an alternative appropriate social behavior.
3. **Motivation Systems**—A three-level token economy designed for special education programs meets each student's individual needs while providing a gradual transition from artificial consequences to more naturally occurring forms of feedback and internal controls.
4. **Administrative Intervention**—An established sequence of consequences coupled with the teaching of alternative behaviors for office referrals promotes consistency and predictability with the goal being the student's successful return to the classroom.

What Education Training programs are available?

- **Pre-Service Workshops**—A set of three workshops provides educators with the specialized technology to begin implementing the Model: Social Skills in the Schools (three days, $250), Comprehensive Classroom Management for Special-Needs Students (five days, $350), and Administrative Intervention (three days, $250).

  These workshops are conducted monthly on the Boys Town campus and by contract on-site throughout the country.
- **Consultation Services**—Schools that want more than just workshop training may also contract for these services: classroom observation, treatment planning, and consultation documentation.
- **Training of Trainers**—This five-stage training process teaches educators how to implement and supervise the Boys Town Education Model within their own schools.

How do I get more information?

Call the Boys Town Education Training program at (402) 498-1596.

SUCCESS STORIES

In the past four years alone, almost 5,000 individuals from 375 schools, districts, and agencies have received training in the Boys Town Education Model, impacting hundreds of thousands of young people. As reported by the media, here are some of the results:

"a model for life"

Lincoln Elementary teachers haven't had to send many students to the principal's office this year, thanks to a discipline approach new to the school.

The week before school opened this fall, Lincoln Elementary staff attended a training seminar to learn about the "Boys Town Model of Social Skills." Although training was in theory, practice of the model has astonished some of the Lincoln faculty.

"This is not a model for school, it's a model for life," says kindergarten teacher Laurie Morrison....

Fourth-grade teacher Steve Grint looks back at his work a year ago and says he was frustrated because students weren't responsive to discipline. He says implementation of the Boys Town model has improved the environment and resulted in more learning.

One of Grint's fourth graders says she's happier in school this year than she was a year ago. . . "I'm proud of myself because people compliment me," she says.

—North Platte, NE, Telegraph
October 31, 1993

"self-discipline strategy"

Landis Principal Paula Conley said the program has been effective at both schools because "expectations are consistent. The children know what their behavior expectations are and they are meeting them. It's a teaching program...."

She added, "Parents have been real appreciative and teachers have been perceiving that discipline problems are on the decrease."

—Alief, TX, Independent School District Newsletter
August, 1991

"a Shazam story"

Verda James Elementary School Principal Chuck Huber said that from September through mid-November playground referrals (when children are sent to the office for fighting or other negative behavior) were down 75 percent...

Huber said the program is humanistic and individualized and concentrates on discipline rather than punishment...

"It's the best decision the District's made since I've been here...," he said. Every teacher in the school has come to him with "a Shazam story—when they use the intervention steps and it just works, it clicks."

—Casper, WY, Star-Tribune
December 21, 1992

"a chance to succeed"

A revamped focus at the Easter Seal Jolicoeur School to match nationally acclaimed Boys Town Family Home techniques has produced some remarkable results with students, according to School Supervisor Jane Bergeron.

"We started last year with some kids who were extremely physically aggressive," she said of the school for emotionally and physically disabled students. "They were striking out at the faculty and even the building. But we were able to curb all of that and see huge amounts of success in one year all without physical restraints or meaningless punishment."

Several of the students were ready to return to their old schools and to be mainstreamed again because of their success in the program.

—Derry, NH
Fall, 1987

"an opportunity to teach"

Edison Elementary School Principal Larry Miller says the program works. "It provides definite goals and procedures on how to work with kids," he says. "The program is consistent. Kids know what is expected of them. They know how unacceptable behavior will be handled."

Denise Greenberg, AEA school social worker, says this program downplays the typical teacher-student power struggle. "It is a well-structured program and the teacher is always in charge. However, it maintains a humanistic approach. Even when a student is sent to the office, it is used as an opportunity to teach."

—AEA Today, Council Bluffs, IA
Spring, 1988

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Champs. In *Quality Education Initiatives.* (1993). Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

CHAMPS

Children are Making Progress in School (CHAMPS) is a model for intervening briefly (two grading periods), with elementary school students in grades two through five, who are exhibiting a mix of behavior problems, poor social skills, and attendance problems. CHAMPS serves as a temporary, intensive, behavioral remediation program designed to increase children's success with school adjustment. Up to eight students from a targeted grade level in a regular elementary school are selected from a list of students referred by school personnel. Regular class teacher input is essential in the referral and selection process.

Participants in the program attend a CHAMPS Skills Classroom, staffed by a fulltime CHAMPS teacher. Regular class teachers are scheduled to visit the CHAMPS class where they may observe, teach, and assess student progress. When visiting teachers are scheduled to the CHAMPS classroom, an itinerant replacement teacher teaches in the visiting teachers' mainstream classes. CHAMPS students are taught skills which encourage increased positive participation and academic success.

Initially, during the Remediation Phase, students attend all classes in the CHAMPS classroom; during the Extended Transition Phase students gradually re-enter their regularly scheduled classes by earning points on a period-by-period basis in the CHAMPS classroom. As students reintegrate, ratings earned in their regular classes are included in the overall reintegration process. Continuous period-by-period teacher ratings of student classroom performance determine the rate of student return to mainstream classes. The CHAMPS teacher and subject teachers collaborate to determine grades as well as ratings, based on student attendance and performance in each setting.

The grade-appropriate standard academic curriculum is taught in each CHAMPS classroom to ensure the academic success of the students in the program. Close contact between academic teachers and the CHAMPS teacher facilitates a smooth transition as students re-enter their regularly scheduled classes. The academic teachers provide lesson plans to the CHAMPS teacher to maximize appropriate pacing of materials taught in the CHAMPS class.

In addition to academic lessons, students receive instruction in social and organizational skills. Student responsibility for personal choices is emphasized consistently through ratings, discussions regarding outcomes, rules and contingencies, and a token economy system with points earned for specific behaviors. Parental contact occurs prior to admission to the program, and contacts are made two to three times weekly by the CHAMPS teacher throughout the program. A positive statement is made at every contact, and parents are encouraged to participate actively in their child's school experience and to help the child develop positive coping strategies at home. Responsibility for parent contact is shared with other school personnel to encourage the building of a support system for the parents that continues after the conclusion of the program.

. . . .

Grants awarded to

Lincoln–IU 12
717-845-1408

Lancaster School District–IU 13
215-291-6252

. . . .

Developer

Dr. Mary Margaret Kerr
412-622-3910

Directors

Dr. Robert Staub
412-225-5380
Ms. Kim Merical
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313

This program description is a composite of information drawn from materials provided by the developer over the course of this grant.

Commonwealth Classroom. In *Quality Education Initiatives.* (1993). Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Special Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education.

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COMMONWEALTH CLASSROOM

The Commonwealth Classroom is a model for providing support within the general education setting for middle school students whose behavior or poor school adjustment places them at risk for referral to special education. These students may demonstrate disruptive or withdrawn classroom behavior; they may demonstrate problems with social skills or problems with attendance, on-task behavior, assignment completion, or class participation. Typically, there are up to 15 students in a Commonwealth Classroom at one time.

Initially, participants in the program receive all of their instruction within the Commonwealth class. Set up much like a regular classroom, Commonwealth is staffed by a Base Teacher who remains with the students all day to provide the program with continuity. However, the Base Teacher is assisted in academic and non-academic instruction by members of a team of volunteer Visiting Teachers from the regular education faculty of the school. Members of this team each devote one regular teaching period per day to teach their content subject to the students attending the Commonwealth class.

Expectations for Commonwealth students are based on target behaviors identified by the school faculty as important within the context of the middle school, and they are comparable to expectations held for the entire student population. In addition to academic instruction from the regular education Visiting Teachers, participants receive instruction in school survival skills, social skills, classroom behaviors, and transition time behaviors. The students practice these skills on an individual and group basis, using regular education materials, with guidance and feedback from the regular education teacher assigned to the Commonwealth class.

After 30 days in the program, students become eligible to return to their regular education classes, one class at a time. Re-entry privileges are based largely on Visiting Teachers' ratings of the students' academic performance, the way in which they conduct themselves, and their participation in classroom activities. Re-entry conferences are held with each receiving teacher, the Base Teacher, and the student prior to the student's return. The receiving teacher obtains management ideas from the Base Teacher at this and at follow-up conferences.

After re-entry, teachers monitor student performance and students also monitor themselves (their own academic and social performance). As a result of successful ratings, attendance, and grades, a student can earn a second class, a third, and so on. An alternative re-entry component permits students to return to all regular classes at once.

Grants awarded to

Erie School District–IU 5
814-871-6501

Williamsport Area School District–IU 17
717-323-4785

Greencastle-Antrim School District–IU 12
717-264-2186

Shamokin Area School District–IU 16
717-648-6812

Millcreek Township School District–IU 5
814-835-5382

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This program description is a composite of information drawn from materials provided by the developer over the course of this grant.

COMP (1994). *Classroom Organization and Management Program focusing checklists.* Nashville, TN: COMP, Vanderbilt University.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT PROGRAM
FOCUSING CHECKLISTS

FOCUSING CHECKLIST 1
RE-EVALUATING YOUR ROOM ARRANGEMENT

YES SOMETIMES NO

1. Does congestion often occur in certain areas of the room? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
2. Can you and students move around easily through clear traffic lanes not blocked by desks, etc.? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
3. Do students in small groups or at stations distract nearby students? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
4. Can you see all students from anywhere in the room when you are instructing? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
5. Can students see all instructional displays without straining or moving their chairs? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
6. Are students who need attention seated where they can be easily reached? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
7. Do some students frequently bother others near them? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

FOCUSING CHECKLIST 3
REVIEWING YOUR ACCOUNTABILITY PROCEDURES

YES SOMETIMES NO

1. Do many students fail to complete assignments? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
2. Do others have trouble getting started on assignments? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
3. Is much student work messy and illegible? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
4. Are students completing work on time, without your giving time extensions? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
5. Do students claim they did not know an assignment was due or what the requirements were? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
6. After grades are given, do students frequently complain that they do not know why they received a particular grade? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

COMP

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FOCUSING CHECKLIST 2
REVIEWING YOUR RULES AND PROCEDURES

YES SOMETIMES NO

1. Have you stopped enforcing one or more of your rules ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
2. Are major class procedures being followed without prompting (e.g., student talk, equipment use, etc.)? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
3. Are some student misbehaviors occurring that are not covered by your current rules and procedures? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
4. Are you giving the same directions repeatedly for common procedures ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
5. Do you spend as much time going over directions later in the year as you did at the beginning? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
6. Do you have some students who have an especially hard time following rules and procedures? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

FOCUSING CHECKLIST 4
REVIEWING MANAGEMENT OF STUDENT BEHAVIOR

YES SOMETIMES NO

1. Do students ignore reprimands or corrections of behavior? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
2. Are you warning, threatening, and failing to follow through when misbehavior continues? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
3. Do you reward good student behavior, including effort, in a variety of ways? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
4. When you use an extrinsic reward, do you pair it with praise that focuses on the student's abilities and achievements? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
5. Have your rewards and penalties lost their value from overuse ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
6. Does administering your reward and penalty system take too much time? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
7. Do you ever teach a student step by step how to do a desired behavior? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
8. Do you provide students with ways to monitor their own behavior? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
9. Are you able to stop emerging misbehavior without taking time from the lesson ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
10. Are you able to stop emerging misbehavior and still keep a positive classroom climate? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
11. Do you investigate possible causes of misbehavior (e.g., ignorance, physical/emotional factors, etc.)? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

A resource guide for Oregon educators on developing student responsibility. (1989). Salem:
Oregon Department of Education.

MATERIAL NOT COPYRIGHTED

A Resource Guide for Oregon Educators on Developing Student Responsibility

1989

Division of Special Student Services
Jerry Fuller
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Judy Miller, Director
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Oregon Department of Education
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A Continuum of Services for Managing Student Behavior — Interventions

One of the most important components for encouraging student responsibility is a process providing increasing educational interventions if students continue to demonstrate irresponsible behavior. Built into the process should be the essential and unrelenting question: *"What additional skills do students need in order to develop responsibility, and what level of educational interventions are necessary to facilitate such learning?"* Such a process offers a much greater chance of success than merely allowing a student to face negative consequences over and over again for irresponsible behavior.

A Continuum of Services is a systematic framework. It encourages student responsibility and the management of student behavior through a preventive, problem-solving process that allows for appropriate provision of services for all students[6]. Such a continuum is shown on the chart on page 5. This continuum both prescribes the level of services needed to encourage students to behave in a responsible manner and describes where students are in terms of their educational placement in an environment where they can reach their maximum potential. The placement should take into account educational, social, cultural and handicapping conditions. Movement of students on the continuum beginning at Step 1 and culminating with Step 5, reflects their progressive need for increased interventions.

How the Continuum Functions

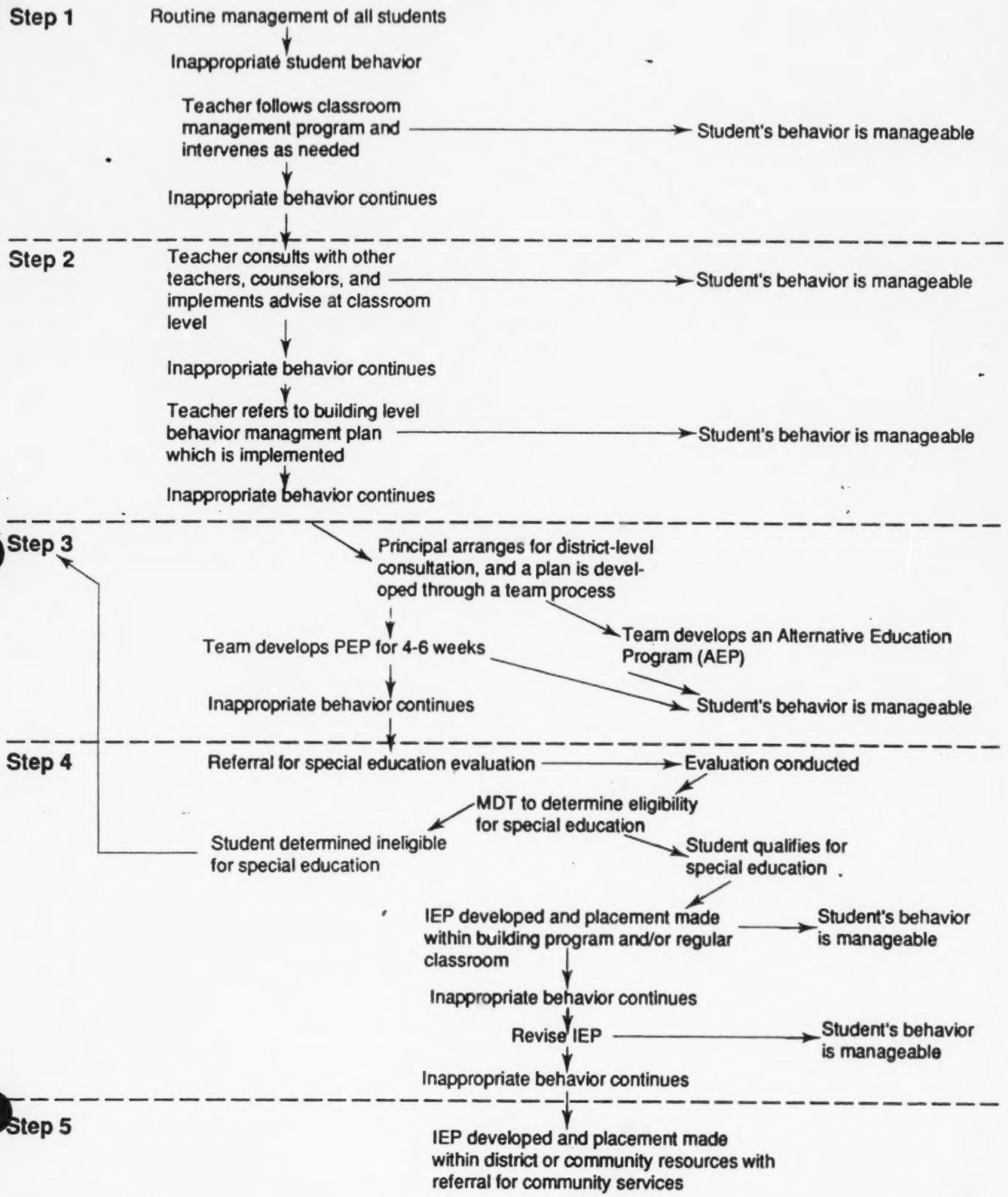
The process begins at Step 1 with the use of basic school resources to serve the entire student population. With appropriate classroom processes in place at Step 1, fewer students will need Step 2 services and interventions. For those students who engage in behaviors that interfere with their learning or the learning of others, Step 1 procedures, involving classroom adjustments designed primarily by the teacher, are made. If students continue irresponsible behavior, they move to Step 2 which results in building resources being utilized for educational interventions. Such a process continues with Step 3 utilizing district resources, Step 4 with eligibility for and provision of special education services, and ends with Step 5 which includes maximum utilization of resources: special education, district resources and community resources in a student's educational plan.

Benefits of the Process

The overall benefits of having a full continuum of services available is that it:

- Provides a clear process for educators to use in identifying student needs and responsive school services in a timely and effective way.
- Facilitates the development of a behavior management plan that "matches and incorporates the unique characteristics of both students and school services"[7].
- Allows educators to serve the maximum student population with a minimum number of services and to serve a minimum number of students with a maximum level of resources.
- And ensures that students are consistently educated in the least restrictive environment, thus preventing over-identification of students as Seriously Emotionally Disturbed.

Student Behavior Management Process
Based on Continuum of Services


Step 1
Routine management of all students
Inappropriate student behavior
Teacher follows classroom management program and intervenes as needed
Student's behavior is manageable
Inappropriate behavior continues
Step 2
Teacher consults with other teachers, counselors, and implements advise at classroom level
Student's behavior is manageable
Inappropriate behavior continues
Teacher refers to building level behavior managment plan which is implemented
Student's behavior is manageable
Inappropriate behavior continues
Step 3
Principal arranges for district-level consultation, and a plan is developed through a team process
Team develops PEP for 4-6 weeks
Team develops an Alternative Education Program (AEP)
Inappropriate behavior continues
Student's behavior is manageable
Step 4
Referral for special education evaluation
Evaluation conducted
MDT to determine eligibility for special education
Student determined ineligible for special education
Student qualifies for special education
IEP developed and placement made within building program and/or regular classroom
Student's behavior is manageable
Inappropriate behavior continues
Revise IEP
Student's behavior is manageable
Inappropriate behavior continues
Step 5
IEP developed and placement made within district or community resources with referral for community services

A Continuum of Services for Managing Student Behavior

Step	Responsibility	Placement/Procedure	Primary Processes
1	Classroom teacher	Regular classroom placement	a) Examination of instructional, curriculum and teaching methods b) Examination of social/cultural factors c) Classroom management process d) Teacher intervention and modification of above, as needed e) Consultation with parents
2	Classroom teacher and school staff	Regular classroom placement and referral to school resources/school discipline system	a) Team problem-solving process focused on casual factors and services needed b) Schoolwide Student Management process c) Review of Step 1 processes
3	Classroom teacher, school and district staff	Regular classroom placement or alternative educational program and request for district resources	a) District/building team process for developing written behavior plan with student b) Coordination of behavior plan by specified staff member c) Review of Step 2 processes
4	Classroom teacher, school and district staff	Request for special education evaluation. Placement in a special building program and/ or regular classroom	a) Team process to determine eligibility for special education b) If eligible, IEP team process to determine placement and program c) If ineligible, return to Step 3 processes
5	School staff including special education	Placement within district resources and referral to community resources	a) MDT process to evaluate continuing need for special education b) IEP process to plan services and review continued need for restrictive educational placement

The effectiveness of each decision made along the continuum is vital to the overall benefits of the process. Each step within this continuum will be further examined in terms of entry criteria, staff responsibility, procedures and exit criteria. As Steps 1, 2 and 3 contain components and processes critical to a school's prevention efforts, information about evaluating the effectiveness of the primary processes in these steps will also be addressed. A "yes" answer to the questions presented indicates optimum potential for development of positive student behavior. For evaluating effectiveness of Step 4 and Step 5 processes, the reader is encouraged to review Technical Assistance Paper #5 on **"A Suggested Procedure for the Identification of and Provision of Services to Seriously Emotionally Disturbed Students"**[8] and **"Pathways to Responsible Behavior Management: Developing Effective IEP's For Students Requiring Behavior Management Goals"**[9].

Step 1: Classroom Adjustments

Process and Procedures

Entry Criteria: When student behavior interferes with their learning or the learning of others, Step 1 procedures are initiated.

Primary Responsibility: The classroom teacher is primarily responsible for implementing procedures at this step.

Procedures: Initial procedures include the development of an intervention plan or making classroom adjustments to encourage positive and responsible student behavior. Interventions or modifications usually begin by:

- Examining instructional and teaching methods,
- Examining organizational factors,
- Examining social and cultural factors,
- Examining the classroom student management system,
- Teaching the skills necessary for responsible student behavior, and
- Consulting with parents.

Outside assistance, unless on an informal basis with other teachers, is usually not sought at this step. The teacher manages the student's behavior within the classroom.

Exit Criteria: If the teacher's planned intervention results in student progress, no further action is taken. If, however, the student's behavior continues to be a problem, Step 2 processes and procedures are implemented.

Encouraging student responsibility and preventing student behavior problems begins in the classroom. A myriad of research studies on effective classroom management have linked effective classroom management with effective teaching. Such studies provide evidence that teacher behavior is the key factor affecting student behavior and that classroom structures which enable students to experience academic and social success are effective in enhancing motivation, preventing discipline problems and facilitating development of student responsibility[11].

A fairly in-depth discussion of classroom processes at Step 1 will be given because such processes utilized for all students can dramatically prevent behavior problems from ever occurring. In addition, paying attention to such processes for students who do exhibit behavior problems offers the greatest chance of success in encouraging more responsible behavior.

Evaluating Effectiveness of Primary Processes at Step 1

Examining Teaching and Instructional Methods: In order to facilitate learning and promote positive student behavior, teachers continually strive to utilize teaching and instructional methods that address student's personal and academic needs, promote student involvement in a variety of learning activities, facilitate on-task behavior and enhance student motivation. For students who are experiencing frustration and failure, or who are exhibiting behavior problems in the classroom, it is important that the curriculum and instructional strategies be closely examined and modified as needed.

In evaluating the curriculum and instructional approaches, the following questions may be helpful. This list reflects important considerations which may have a major impact on promoting or discouraging student responsibility and which frequently get overlooked in working with students who demonstrate inappropriate behavior.[12] This list is not meant, however, to be comprehensive in terms of all instructional considerations.

1. Is instruction matched with the student's learning style and cognitive abilities?
2. Is the student given realistic and immediate feedback on academic work and being retaught information the student has not yet mastered?
3. Is the student involved in academic goal-setting so that success is experienced?
4. Does the time required for individual seatwork take into account the student's ability to complete the assigned work?
5. Is there relevance of the subject matter to the student's personal life and does the student understand this connection?
6. Are necessary teaching modifications being provided to meet the student's individual needs (i.e., changing the way the student gets the information, altering assignments, altering lessons, changing the way student feedback is given or adjusting the evaluation procedures)?
7. Does the grading system motivate the student to make an effort in school work?
8. Is the student receiving more positive than negative feedback?
9. Are the student's needs for security, safety, belonging, affection and self-respect being met within the classroom environment?
10. Are there outside environmental factors which may be interfering with the student's fulfillment of personal needs for which a referral for help is necessary?

Examining Organizational Factors: The following questions serve as a guide to examining some key organizational factors:

1. Is instructional time used effectively?
2. Are students placed in instructional groups which fit their instructional needs?
3. Do the transitions between instructional activities promote positive student behavior?
4. Is the classroom designed to facilitate on-task behavior?
5. Is seatwork time used effectively?
6. Is pacing effectively used to balance information and student involvement?
7. Is student feedback and evaluation effectively utilized to maximize student success and responsible behavior?

Examining Social Factors: The social atmosphere or climate of the classroom can promote positive student behavior and self-responsibility. A classroom climate most conducive to encouraging positive student behavior is one which:

- Allows students to feel safe and accepted as persons of worth and dignity,
- Is based on mutual respect and cooperation,
- Promotes understanding of self and others,
- Provides respect for individual uniqueness, and most importantly,

- Allows all students the opportunity to have positive interactions with others.

Research findings on disruptive student behavior indicate that such students demonstrate negative behavior in situations where they are neither valued nor made a part of the classroom process[12].

The following list of questions may facilitate an examination of social factors in the classroom:

1. Is the primary focus of teacher interaction with students who have behavior problems on appropriate or inappropriate student behavioral responses?
2. Is respect for student individual uniqueness demonstrated through teacher and peer interactions?
3. Are effective communication skills utilized with all students to encourage development of self-responsibility?
4. Are all students provided with frequent interaction and feedback which communicate to them that they are valuable, able and responsible[13]?
5. Are opportunities provided for students to get to know each other, develop friendships and practice cooperating in groups?
6. Is the degree to which each student feels valued and accepted as a group member assessed?
7. Are additional educational interventions and group strategies provided when any student in the classroom is experiencing minimal positive interaction from peers?
8. Is a supportive and collaborative relationship with parents encouraged to promote student responsibility?

Examining Cultural Factors: In facilitating the development of responsible student behavior in the school setting, it is important to examine cultural factors. Research indicates that a disproportionately higher number of culturally diverse and minority students peers are:

- referred for psychological services,
- referred for special education[14], and
- more likely to be suspended from school[15].

Significant cultural and language differences are sometimes perceived by teachers as deficits. Such perceptions can result in lowered teacher expectations and can ultimately lead to various student academic and social problems.

Student difficulties in the educational process sometimes result from misunderstandings and value conflicts between teachers and students who are each responding to different culturally based rules of communication.[16] Student discipline problems can occur because of a student's failure to understand, accept or abide by school rules which may be different or incompatible with cultural or communication norms.[17]

Halverson[18] suggests that there are cultural, as well as individual differences that impact on the teaching-learning process. She developed a "Cultural Learning Styles" chart to assist educators in identifying cultural patterns relevant to learning styles and then matching those learning styles with teacher instructional strategies.

While it may be an unrealistic expectation for teachers to thoroughly understand the various cultural patterns of all students in their classrooms, examining the cultural differences of a student who is experiencing behavioral or academic difficulties may open up ideas for effective intervention strategies.

The following questions may assist in exploring cultural factors:

1. Are academic and behavioral standards for culturally diverse and minority students the same as for all students?
2. Are the classroom and school rules sensitive to the cultural values and norms of the total school population?
3. Are cross-cultural communication topics and materials integrated into the curriculum and does the curriculum recognize the contributions of diverse cultures and minority populations?

4. Do culturally diverse students have sufficient linguistic proficiency to engage in and benefit from adult and peer interactions?

5. Do the instructional and teaching strategies take into account each student's preferred learning modes, including:

   a. a language preference,
   b. a preferred way of relating to others,
   c. an incentive preference, and
   d. a preference for thinking, perceiving, remembering, and problem-solving[19]?

Establishing a curriculum that accommodates the unique learning style of all students, including those who are culturally different is essential. Howard[20], summed up "multicultural education" by stating:

> It is not simply a recognition of holidays, goods, histories, and role models. It is an appreciation of diversity in cultural values, nonverbal behavior and meanings, and cognitive styles. Our goal, as educators, should not be to help everyone succeed in the same way, but to help everyone succeed in ways that best reflect their own unique, individual and cultural styles and values.

Examining the Classroom Management System: Research studies on teacher effectiveness and classroom management support the need for the development of a proactive classroom management process aimed towards self-discipline and student responsibility.[21] The traditional methods of improving student behavior relies on telling students how they should act, how they should feel, what is right from wrong and methods used to "control" student behavior. A proactive approach moves towards providing students with the opportunity to actively explore their attitudes, thoughts, emotions, behaviors and concerns for themselves and others so that they learn to make appropriate and responsible behavioral decisions.

The following factors have been present in classrooms with effective student management systems:

- The emphasis is on positive student behaviors and preventive measures.

- Problem-solving is focused on causes of behavior problems rather than symptoms.

- Students are involved in resolving behavior problems through a problem-solving process.

- Expected student behaviors are taught and clearly articulated.

- Teachers model desired student behaviors[22].

The process of examining the classroom student management system requires a focus on (1) classroom rules and (2) consequences for meeting or failing to meet such rules. Both are essential components of a student management system.

Classroom Rules: Research has revealed that student behavior is more constructive, consistent and reflective of what the teacher expects in the classroom when students understand exactly what is expected of them.[23] In examining effectiveness of classroom rules, the following questions may provide assistance:

1. Are the rules developed with student input and participation?

2. Are they stated positively in terms of what students are expected to do rather than what they are not supposed to do?

3. Are they clear, easy to understand and in fact, understood by all students?

4. Are they written and posted in a visible place in the classroom?

5. Are they consistent with the building's code of conduct or student management plan?

6. Are they related to responsible behavior to self and others and to maintaining a classroom environment conducive to learning?

Classroom Consequences: It is imperative for students to understand and be able to predict the likely consequences or results of their actions prior to making their behavioral choices. This is a prerequisite skill for assuming responsibility for oneself. In classroom environments where teachers make arbitrary decisions in response to student behavior problems, there is a greater likelihood that the student will feel victimized by the teacher, will continue to perceive others as responsible for their emotional difficulties, and will fail to develop the skills necessary for self-responsibility. In examining consequences, the following questions may provide assistance:

1. Are consequences for meeting or failing to meet class rules understood by all students?
2. Are consequences consistently enforced?
3. Is the emphasis on using positive consequences to encourage student responsibility rather than on negative consequences or punishment for rule violations?
4. Is there maximum use of natural and logical consequences to encourage student responsibility?
5. Are teacher responses in relation to rule violations handled quickly and within the classroom setting where possible, rather than students being removed from the classroom for someone else to respond to?
6. Are consequences applied in a non-threatening and as objective manner as possible, given the circumstances?
7. Do consequences emphasize helping students understand the impact their behavior has on others and developing alternate ways to meet their needs?

Teaching Responsible Student Behavior: As with the acquisition of any new skills or competencies, students require:

- specific information on how to be responsible,
- models of responsible behavior,
- practice in utilizing the skill of assuming responsibility, and
- reinforcement for assuming responsibility.

It is appropriate to assume that students "*behave in a manner they believe, for whatever personal reasons, is in their best interests*[24]". It is important for schools to take an active role in teaching students alternative and appropriate methods of meeting their needs.

The development of responsibility is learned through instruction and experience. For all students, to some extent, and especially for those students who need to learn how to make effective decisions regarding their behavior, both instruction and experience are necessary.

There are a number of instructional programs available to teach the process and skills necessary for assuming responsibility. A common component in most instructional programs is problem-solving. In providing instruction related to problem solving, the teacher's role may include assisting students in the following ways:

- clarifying a current problem which requires a decision,
- clarifying the student's thoughts and feelings regarding the events,
- clarifying the limits that exist in the environment regarding behavior,
- identifying alternative choices available to solve the problem,
- selecting one of the choices by evaluating the likely consequences and anticipate future difficulties which may occur, and
- evaluating the effectiveness of their decisions through feedback and discussions.[25]

In examining the steps in such a process, there are a number of skills that students may require systematic instruction in order to be able to effectively make decisions and assume responsibility for their behavior. Examples of a few such skills include:

- critical thinking,
- problem solving,
- decision making,
- communication skills, and
- various other social skills.

The following questions address key factors in teaching student responsibility.

1. Is teaching directed towards helping students understand their individual rights and responsibilities to others?
2. Is training provided in cooperative problem solving and decision making?
3. Are students retaught what is responsible behavior when they demonstrate behavior that falls outside the limits of what is expected?
4. When students exhibit behavior problems in the classroom, are efforts made to clarify the underlying problems which led to the behaviors and then teaching alternative and appropriate ways of dealing with such difficulties?

Students often exhibit disruptive behavior "*as a way to reduce feelings of frustration, tension or anxiety*"[26]. They must be provided with instruction designed to assist them in understanding their own behavior and then learn appropriate ways to get their needs met. Punishing students for inappropriate behavior will not teach them alternative and more appropriate ways to manage their emotions.

Step 2: Referral Activities with Building Resources

Process and Procedures

Entry Criteria: If a student continues behaviors that interfere with ability to make educational progress following implemented interventions at Step 1 or if a student exhibits inappropriate behaviors which results in automatic referral into a school's management and discipline system, Step 2 procedures are implemented.

Primary Responsibility: The regular classroom teacher and building staff share responsibility at this step. The student maintains placement in the regular classroom.

Procedures:

1. The classroom teacher addresses the student's problem behavior with other school staff within the building who may be able to provide assistance; i.e., other classroom teachers, consulting teachers, counselors, school social workers, child development specialists or principal.
2. The team plans intervention efforts and those responsible for managing the student direct the intervention.
3. A referral into a schoolwide student management system is made if the student exhibits behaviors identified as unacceptable for which consequences are specified.
4. Referrals to community agencies are made, as needed.

Often Step 2 students are involved with other community agencies, i.e., Children's Services, Mental Health, Juvenile Department, local law enforcement agencies, etc. Some schools are engaged in a Youth Services Team Model in which school and agency staff collaborate in team problem solving to plan effective interventions for students. While school and agency collaboration often begins at Step 2, it can occur at any step within the continuum.

Exit Criteria: If the Step 2 interventions are effective in assisting the student in making educational progress and choosing responsible behavior, a decision is made as to the most appropriate alternative;

- continuing Step 2 interventions,
- returning to Step 1 interventions, or
- discontinuing all special intervention processes.

If the student continues to choose behaviors that interfere with educational progress, a decision is made by the team as to whether to seek other Step 2 intervention strategies or move to Step 3.

Evaluating Effectiveness of Primary Processes at Step 2

Team Problem Solving: In order to provide a coordinated effort towards the development and implementation of a plan to assist a student in making appropriate behavioral choices, it is important that all building staff who have involvement with the student meet and share information. Disjointed efforts and lack of consistency by school staff can aggravate student behavior problems. Questions to address in relationship to team problem solving are:

1. Is time available for all staff involved with a particular student within the building to meet and plan?
2. Are parents asked for input in this planning process?
3. Does the team process include looking at causal factors which may underlie the behavior problems, such as the existence of depression, situational crisis, abuse, substance abuse, truancy, etc.?
4. When appropriate, are referrals to community agencies generated through this process?
5. Does the planning focus on providing assistance to the student in terms of acquiring appropriate social skills?
6. Is the team process focused on positive intervention strategies rather than negative consequences?
7. Is the intervention plan developed by the team designed in such a way that consistency across settings and among staff are maximized with regard to defining student expectations and following through with consequences?
8. Does the team include refocusing on Step 1 interventions and modifications so that the student is able to experience success in the classroom?

Schoolwide Student Management Policy

Students who exhibit behavior problems at school and haven't developed self-responsibility find themselves rather quickly at Step 2 and very likely become involved with the school's Student Management Policy and resulting disciplinary action for rule violations. Such contact can either encourage the development of self-discipline and responsibility or can discourage its development through:

- reinforcing the student's feeling of victimization,
- reinforcing the notion that "schools are in control", or
- by failing to follow through with enforcing policy guidelines which allows the student to continue irresponsible behavior.

The overall design of a schoolwide management policy can have a major impact on all students and especially students who exhibit behavior problems in school. There will be some brief discussion of an effective Schoolwide management policy as it relates to encouraging responsible student behavior, however it is beyond the scope of this document to clarify all of the necessary factors, processes and components of such a policy.

A Schoolwide Student Management Policy is a working document that provides guidelines for the choices and decisions of students and all school staff. The overall purpose is to:

- Encourage students to assume responsibility for their academic and behavioral choices by clarifying their rights and responsibilities, expectations or rules for responsible behavior, and consequences for meeting or violating the rules, and

- provide a consistent school staff response to students requiring behavioral intervention.

Minimum components found in such policies include the following:

- student rights and responsibilities,

- rules of conduct or behavioral expectations,

- disciplinary responses for rule violation of specified behaviors, and

- regulations for procedural due process involving suspensions and expulsions.

One of the components consistently found in schools with effective management processes is a Schoolwide Student Management Policy that includes a proactive educational approach to encourage responsible behavior and prevent discipline problems. In such schools, student learning considerations are the major criteria used in decision making[27]. Educational interventions are provided when problems develop. Such an approach is based on the recognition that more is required than merely attempting to deal with student misbehavior or reducing discipline problems through punishment procedures[28].

The following key questions are provided to assist educators in reviewing their policy in terms of its educational approach and focus on encouraging responsible student behavior.

1. Is the policy developed by involving educational and support staff, students, parents and community members?

2. Does the policy respond to the unique behavior management needs of the building and local community?

3. Is the policy understood by educational and support staff, students and parents through training efforts?

4. Is the policy reviewed at least on an annual basis by participants in order for it to reflect current building needs, community attitudes and changing laws?

5. Do each of the rules within the policy have a legitimate and rational relationship to the school's stated educational purpose?

6. Are disciplinary actions for rule violations educationally sound, commensurate with the student's inappropriate behavior and compatible with the student's needs?[29]

7. Are disciplinary actions coupled with educational interventions and problem-solving processes to encourage responsible behavior?

8. Is there a distinct discipline policy for handicapped students which insures legal protections such as prevention of exclusionary discipline for behaviors related to a student's handicapping condition?

Step 3: Documented Plan with District Resources

Process and Procedures

Entry Criteria: If a student continues behaviors that interfere with their ability to make educational progress following Step 2 interventions, movement to Step 3 may be decided upon by the educational and building team members. Step 3 procedures related to "Alternative Educational Programs" (AEP) will automatically occur, as required by ORS 339.250(6) and OAR 581-21-071, in the following circumstances:

- Upon the occurrence of a second or any subsequent occurrence of a severe disciplinary problem within a three-year period;

- When the district finds a student's attendance pattern so erratic that the student is not benefitting from the education program;
- When the district is considering expulsion as a disciplinary alternative;
- When a student is expelled pursuant to Section 3 of ORS 339.250; and
- When the student or the student's parents or legal guardian notifies the district of intent to withdraw from the program as provided under ORS 339.250(7).

Primary Responsibility: The regular classroom teacher, building staff and district resource staff share responsibility for procedures at Step 3.

Procedures: Step 3 processes serve a dual function, a) they provide more intensive interventions and services and b) they provide a mechanism for organized data collection in case an eligibility decision for special education is necessary at Step 4. Because of the data collection function, all procedures listed below require documentation, including the rationale for the team's decision to begin Step 3 procedures and the data on which the team based its decision.

1. A referral is made to district resources for behavior management consultation and assistance. Such consultation is usually provided by a special educator, behavior specialist, social worker or school psychologist.
2. An intervention team consisting of teachers, building staff and district staff who are involved with the student meet to develop one of the two options listed below:
    a. A personal educational plan (PEP) designed to change the behaviors that are interfering with the student's ability to make education progress through the utilization of building and district services, or
    b. A proposal for at least two alternative education programs (AE), also designed to alleviate the problems which interfere with the student's ability to make educational progress. AE utilizes building resources, district resources and/or district contracted resources.
3. Parental input and approval is sought for the development of either plan listed above.
4. A person from the team is assigned as coordinator to oversee either of the plans listed above.

If the team decides on the development of a personal educational plan (PEP):

1. The plan is implemented for at least four to six weeks, with reviews and modifications made as needed. **(See pp. 33 for sample PEP.)**
2. Data is collected during this intervention period and is organized for presentation to the multi-disciplinary team (MDT) if eligibility for special education is sought at Step 4.
3. **Exit criteria:** At the end of the implementation of the PEP, if the student is able to benefit from the regular education program, a team decision is made whether to continue Step 3 interventions or return to lower level interventions. If the behavior continues to interfere with the student's ability to benefit from the educational process, the team may decide to try alternative Step 3 interventions or decide to move to Step 4.

If the team decides on developing an alternative educational program (AE):

1. The team assesses student's learning needs.
2. The team develops at least two AE program options which match the student's learning needs and documents to the parents a preference as to which one will most likely provide the best opportunities for educational benefit.

3. The student is then placed in an AE program.

(For further information on the development of AE programs, the reader is encouraged to review Oregon Department of Education's Technical Assistance Manual on Alternative Educational Programs.)[30]

4. **Exit criteria:** At the end of the semester, contract period with an AE program, or at the end of an expulsion period, the team must assess whether the behavior problems have improved to allow the student to make educational progress. If the student's behavior has improved, the team decides whether to continue the AE program (with parental approval) or recommend the student return to the regular education program with appropriate level interventions. If the behaviors continue to interfere with the student's educational progress, the team determines whether to try alternative Step 3 procedures or move to Step 4.

Evaluating Effectiveness of Primary Processes at Step 3

Development of a Personal Educational Plan (PEP):

1. Are the student, staff responsible for managing the student, and parents included in the development of the plan?
2. Are expectations for responsible student behavior, consequences for responsible behavior, and consequences for irresponsible behavior clearly stated in the plan, understood by all and consistently enforced?
3. Are the teaching of necessary social skills included in the plan with opportunities for the student to practice problem solving?
4. Is the plan utilized as a process to encourage responsible student behavior by periodic reviews between student, staff, and parents in order to make modifications in the plan as needed?
5. Is documentation being maintained during this intervention phase to show student behavior response to the plan?
6. Are building and district support services being utilized to maximize potential student progress?

Development of an Alternative Educational Program (AE):

1. Are the proposed alternative programs based on the student's learning styles and needs?
2. Are the proposed alternative programs consistent with the student's educational and vocational goals? (i.e., do the programs offer credits leading to high school graduation if the student wants to pursue graduation?)
3. Is an assessment process following placement in an alternative program built in to address whether the program is successful in allowing the student to make educational progress?
4. Are the proposed alternative programs discreetly different from the student's regular education program?
5. Are the proposed alternative programs available and accessible to the student?

(SAMPLE)

Personal Educational Plan to Increase Student Responsibility

Student Name: Jerry Jones
Date: September 15, 1988
School: Middle School
Grade: Seventh PEP Monitor: Mrs. Smith

Reason for PEP:

Student has difficulty managing anger in class which results in frequent disciplinary referrals to the office. Student also completed academic work approximately 50% of the time.

School Staff Responsibility:

PEP Monitor agrees to review the intervention plan with the student at least every two weeks, reinforce student for responsible behavior and communicate weekly with parents.

Teachers agree to consistently follow intervention plan and apply stated consequences.

Counselor agrees to meet with student weekly to go over problem-solving forms and provide social skills training.

Parents agree to review assignment sheet daily and consistently apply stated consequences.

Student Expectations to Increase Student Responsibility:

1. When angry, Jerry is expected to remain in control by making responsible choices to manage his anger.

2. Jerry is expected to remain on-task during class time, complete and turn in assignments on time.

Expectation 1: Managing Anger

Responsible Choices (ways to meet expectations)

When frustrated or angry with peers, I can do the following:
- Try to work it out while remaining calm
- Ignore the situation
- Remove myself from the situation
- Ask a staff member for help
- Use relaxation techniques learned in group

When frustrated with class or school rules, I can choose the following:
- Think through the consequences of my actions before doing anything
- Discuss the situation with a staff member in a calm manner
- Write down my thinking about the situation and then share with staff

Consequences for Responsible Behavior

- Acquiring friends
- Enjoy recess and lunch time
- Stay in class with friends
- Feeling positive about yourself
- Getting off this PEP if followed for four weeks

Irresponsible Choices (choosing negative consequences)

- Start yelling
- Fighting, shoving, hiting, kicking, spiting, pushing or hurting kids
- Cussing, verbalizing obscenities
- Break class and school rules that I don't agree with or because I'm upset

Consequences for Irresponsible Behavior

- Teacher will give one warning to student to make a different choice.
- If inappropriate behavior continues, student is expected to go to the office to fill out a Problem-Solving Form and then meet with the vice-principal before returning to class.
- Regular classroom and student management procedures for all students will be followed in addition to above.

Expectation 2: Complete Academic Work

Responsible Choices

- Listen and participate by showing eye contact, responding to questions, and following class activities.
- Begin work immediately by listening to directions, getting out necessary materials, and beginning assignment.
- If work is difficult, keep trying or ask a teacher for help.
- If bothered by others, move to a quiet place in the room.
- Write all assignments on assignment sheet and take home for parent review.
- Have teachers initial assignment sheet for completed work.

Consequences for Responsible Behavior

- Finish work on time and get better grades.
- Stay in class with friends.
- Have more free time in evenings and weekends.

Irresponsible Choices

- Continual talking to others or just gazing around.
- Trying to get others attention by making noises or gestures.
- Playing with things in the desk.
- Giving up when the work is difficult.
- Forgetting to keep assignment sheet current or forgetting to being it home.

Consequences for Irresponsible Behavior

- Teacher will give one warning for off-task behavior.
- If behavior continues, student will move to back of room to work.
- If work is left incomplete, student will use next recess time to complete work.
- If work still incomplete at end of recess, it will become homework.
- Parents will check assignment sheet daily and student will get free time at home following work completion.

PEP Termination Criteria:

Each expectation and resulting special procedure will be dropped from the PEP when student meets the expectations consistently for a four-week period without a disciplinary referral to the office.

____
Student

____
PEP Monitor

____
Parent

Additional sample Personal Education Plans included in the appendix.

Step 4: Referral for Special Education Services

Process and Procedures

Entry Criteria: If Step 3 interventions have been unsuccessful and the behaviors continue to interfere with the student's ability to make educational progress, the team may decide to move to Step 4 for determination of special education eligibility.

Primary Responsibility: The regular classroom teacher, building staff and district resource staff are all utilized at this step. The MDT determines eligibility, the Individualized Educational Program (IEP) team determines the programming and placement and the special education staff provides the coordination of services.

Procedures:

1. Procedures begin with a referral to special education. Ongoing Step 3 interventions are continued during the MDT's determination of eligibility.
2. The MDT process includes conducting an evaluation upon parental approval, determining student needs and determining a student's eligibility as handicapped (Seriously Emotionally Disturbed [SED]) according to established federal and state regulations.
3. Following an eligibility determination, the IEP team develops an appropriate educational program. The student's placement is within building resources determined by "least restrictive environment" regulations.

Exit Criteria: If the IEP team determines that an educational program requires a student's placement in district resources combined with the provision of community resource services as well, movement to Step 5 is indicated.

Step 5: District Placement with Community Resources

Process and Procedures

Entry Criteria: This is the same as exit criteria for Step 4.

Primary Responsibility: School staff, special education and other district staff and community resource staff all share responsibility at this step. Responsibility for oversight of the student's educational plan rests with the IEP team.

Procedures:

1. The IEP team determines an appropriate placement within district resources or community resources through a contractual arrangement with the district. State resources such as private education programs from the "Christie List" may also be utilized at this step.
2. A referral for community resource involvement is made, unless already arranged at a previous Step.
3. Implementation of the IEP is managed by the coordinator named by the team.
4. Direct and indirect regular or special education services as specified in the plan are provided to the student in the least restrictive educational environment feasible.

Exit Criteria: If the interventions applied have been effective in assisting the student in making educational progress, the IEP team determines whether to continue the Step 5 intervention or return to a lower level of intervention with placement in the least restrictive environment expected to maintain a student's educational progress. If the intervention has not been effective, the MDT may be called upon to develop a new assessment plan to collect data for the IEP team's development of an alternative IEP.

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Implementation Considerations

Development and Implementation

There is a wide variation among school districts, buildings and classrooms in terms of development and implementation of effective processes to encourage student responsibility. What all schools do have in common is an existing process for managing student behavior. Such a procedure may or may not be written; developed and understood by all staff, students and parents; focus on teaching self-responsibility; and proactive. Some districts have policy guidelines which address student needs through offering a full continuum of services for managing student behavior and which provide an educational approach to improve student behavior. Some school buildings have written student management processes and procedures in place without district policy guidelines. Regardless of where each district, building, or classroom is, it is important to engage in activities to improve student behavior.

While there is no "one right way" to develop or enhance processes to encourage student responsibility, the following general implementation steps are suggested as a guide. Many of the initial steps occur simultaneously and are not mutually exclusive. If policy guidelines are unavailable, an ideal place to start is a process leading to the development of district and building student management policies.

Considerations: Training Administrators—In order to implement district and building processes to provide a full continuum of services for managing student behavior, administrators must have the knowledge, skills and understanding of research-based strategies that encourage student responsibility and promote productive student behavior. Inservice training for them on the processes and components of a continuum of services is an essential beginning step. To facilitate the effectiveness of the policy development process, the training should include the opportunity for administrators to complete a district/building self-evaluation on existing student management processes in their school system.

Developing or Enhancing District Policy—Recommendations for policy development or revision follow logically when a thorough assessment of current processes and practices regarding student behavior management in the district are first identified. Further exploration about what is currently going on can be facilitated by involving district personnel, building administrators, school staff and parents in this process.

Providing clear expectations in district policy regarding district, building and classroom processes and procedures can ensure that a full continuum of services is provided and that an educational approach to managing student behavior is maximized. For example:

1. School buildings develop and maintain a documented student management policy and plan consistent with educational goals and teaching positive student behavior and which is developed with school staff, student and parent participation.

2. The buildings have a clearly defined systematic process for providing increasing educational interventions for students who demonstrate irresponsible behavior.

3. The classrooms have a documented student management plan which is posted in the rooms and developed with student participation.

Administrative Leadership and Support: Administrators clearly have the greatest opportunity to shape the culture of the educational environment, whether it be the superintendent of a school district or the principal of a school. Their leadership and support significantly effects the development, implementation and maintenance of any school effort towards improving student behavior. School administrators provide direction through facilitating the entire improvement process. Short[31] summed up the principal's role in this process by stating...

> The principal makes it happen by being a visible force in promoting school expectations for good behavior, facilitating student-teacher problem-solving activities, emphasizing a student-centered approach to the curriculum and instruction, and by intervention activities that utilize the reinforcement power inherent in the position.

Training Staff: Active involvement of staff in all of the implementation steps increases their ownership for, commitment to, and responsibility toward improving student behavior. It is therefore essential for all staff to receive training on the processes and components of providing a continuum of services and to gain a working knowledge in the application of research-based effective practices to encourage student responsibility.

Assessing Current Building-Student Management Processes and Practices: To maximize improvement efforts, it is necessary to understand what is actually taking place in the school so that strengths and areas needing improvement can be clarified. Staff, student and parent input is recommended and can be obtained through a variety of methods. The questions related to effectiveness which are addressed throughout this document can be utilized as a guide in this assessment process. Such questions explore schoolwide practices including but not limited to:

- Instructional practices and curriculum
- Policy guidelines and discipline practices
- Expectations for positive student behavior
- Parent and community involvement in the school
- School climate

In addition, exploring the current levels of student performance, academic achievement, attitude towards school, and behavior, can be valuable in identifying areas needing improvement. Exploring the underlying causes of identified student behavior problems in the school can also clarify school responses which may facilitate student improvement.

Goal-setting: Improvement efforts are most effective when there is a focus placed on one or two high-priority goals. Through information gathered from the assessment process at the previous step, staff can work towards reaching consensus on the goal(s).

Shared goals and activities among staff increase their interest and commitment and the effectiveness of improvements[32]. The entire improvement process, including goal-setting should take place with involvement from all staff.

Developing an Action Plan: Once the goal is selected, an action plan is developed to reach the goal. Action plans include:

- Necessary activities
- Resources needed, (e.g. materials, staff training, schedule adjustments)
- Person or persons responsible for carrying out the activities
- Targeted timelines for completion of the activities

Documenting and distributing this plan of action to all staff will maximize enthusiasm and participation in this effort.

Implementing and Monitoring Plan of Action:Identifying one person to coordinate and manage the implementation of the plan of action increases the effectiveness of the process. In addition to monitoring completion of activities specified in the plan, it is important to monitor student performance based on implementation of the activities. Adjustments to the original plan may be necessary.

Evaluating for Effectiveness: Once the plan of action has been carried out, evaluation of progress towards meeting the goal is completed. A decision is made either to continue with the original goal by identifying new activities or to begin working on a new goal.

Regular and ongoing evaluation of student behavior management policies and procedures insures that they are kept current rather than becoming out- dated, inconsistently followed and thus ineffective. **Regular and ongoing evaluation of effective school processes to improve student behavior is a common characteristic among responsible school systems.**

Building Assessment Process Leading to Implementation of Continuum of Services

The Process: First, review lists containing samples of interventions and service delivery options for students with behavior problems at each step of the continuum of services.

Second, fill out the worksheets for each step both individually and with staff input by first identifying what your building already has available at each step followed by identifying current building needs (i.e., improving current processes, developing new processes or improving coordination between processes).

Step 1: Classroom-Based Interventions and Service Options:

1. Classroom student management system
2. Student involvement in developing class rules and consequences
3. Teaching responsibility as curriculum
4. Problem-solving methods aimed at altering student's behavior
5. Individual student goal-setting
6. Training in cooperative problem-solving
7. Behavioral consultation
8. Parent participation
9. Instructional modification to facilitate student academic success
10. Classroom/schedule adjustment
11. Individual contracting
12. Time-out area in classroom
13. Using problem-solving sheets
14. Substitute teacher guidelines

Step 2: Building-Based Interventions and Service Options:

1. Schoolwide Student Management Plan
2. School philosophy which encourages a school climate which is inviting to all students
3. Student, parent and all staff involvement in developing building rules/consequences
4. Team problem-solving process (i.e., TATs, Care Team, At-Risk, staffings)
5. Consistent school staff response to students requiring behavioral interventions
6. Behavioral consultation
7. A teacher evaluation process which stresses that teachers use techniques and display attitudes which promote the success of *all* students
8. Referral to and coordination with other community agencies
9. Social skills/problem-solving training
10. Individual/group counseling
11. Disciplinary actions are coupled with educational interventions
12. Self-monitoring programs (i.e., "Academic Responsibility")
13. Attendance Club
14. Prevocational/vocational/job placement
15. Student recognition programs
16. Peer tutoring
17. Mentor program
18. Substance abuse counseling
19. Study skills training
20. Self Manager Program
21. Positive Action Curriculum
22. Problem-solving/time-out room within building

Step 3: District-Based Interventions and Service Options:

1. District student management policy (including a clearly defined sequence for responding to irresponsible student behavior)
2. Inservice and staff development training (instruction and behavior management)
3. Allocation of appropriate and available resources
4. Youth services teams and interagency collaboration and cooperation
5. Team staffing process to develop formal behavior contracting process
6. Continuation of all resources from previous steps
7. Alternative education programs
8. Counselor monitoring system
9. Case monitor system to oversee implementation and documentation of individual plan
10. Behavioral consultation
11. Regular and ongoing process to evaluate effectiveness of student management policy/processes

Step 4: Special Education-Based Interventions and Service Options:

1. Mainstream classroom
2. Part-time mainstream/resource placement
3. Behavioral counseling approach for SED students
4. An individualized behavior management program for each student
5. Behavioral consultation
6. Alternative educational programs
7. Continuation of all resources and interventions from previous steps
8. Parent/family training

Step 5: Community-Based Interventions and Service Options:

1. Coordination and collaboration between school and community resources
2. A procedure for reintegrating students into the regular school program
3. Continuation of all resources and interventions from previous steps
4. Self-contained classroom
5. Special day treatment school
6. Residential placement

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A Model Re-ED Classroom for Troubled Students

Frank A. Fecser
Positive Education Program

What are the key ingredients for designing a successful learning environment for troubled and troubling children?

Those of us who work with troubled and troubling students are fortunate that a wealth of great thinkers share our profession. These clinicians and researchers have shaped new ways of thinking about emotional and behavioral problems and their remediation. Now, as our field matures, we are moving from "one true light" presumptions, acknowledging the need to blend the best of divergent approaches in meeting the complex challenges presented by these children and youth.

The Re-ED model represents a system for integrating practices known to facilitate positive behavioral change in students with emotional disturbances. This article describes a Re-ED classroom model developed at the Positive Education Program (PEP) in Cleveland, Ohio. This model is conceptualized as a series of four concentric systems, beginning with the foundation of values and focusing inward to the personal needs of the student. A successful program must attend to critical variables on each of these four levels.

The Values System

A clearly stated values system is the foundation of any community, be it an entire school or a single classroom. Our values system establishes the ethics of good practice and provides a standard against which our decisions can be measured. The values system also provides a common language for communication and consultation among colleagues.

Level I of the PEP model reflects the 12 principles of Project Re-ED (Re-Education of Emotionally Disturbed Children and Youth), developed by the late Dr. Nicholas Hobbs in the early Sixties. These principles are the operating beliefs of our model Re-ED classroom:

1. Life is to be lived now, not in the past, and lived in the future only as a present challenge.
2. Trust between child and adult is essential, the foundation on which all other principles rest, the glue that holds teaching and learning together, the beginning point for re-education.
3. Competence makes a difference; and children and adolescents should be helped to be good at something, especially at schoolwork.
4. Time is an ally, working on the side of growth in a period of development when life has a tremendous forward thrust.
5. Self-control can be taught, and children and adolescents can be helped to manage their behavior without the development of psychodynamic insight. Symptoms can and should be controlled by direct address, not necessarily by an uncovering therapy.

6. The cognitive competence of children and adolescents can be considerably enhanced; they can be taught generic skills in the management of their lives, as well as strategies for coping with the complex array of demands placed on them by family, school, community, or job. In other words, intelligence can be taught.
7. Feelings should be nurtured, shared spontaneously, controlled when necessary, expressed when too long repressed, and explored with trusted others.
8. The group is very important to young people, and it can be a major source of instruction in growing up.
9. Ceremony and ritual give order, stability, and confidence to troubled children and adolescents, whose lives are often in considerable disarray.
10. The body is the armature of the self, the physical self around which the psychological self is constructed.
11. Communities are important for children and youth, but the uses and benefits of community must be experienced to be learned.
12. In growing up, a child should know some joy in each day and look forward to some joyous event for the morrow.

The Re-ED values reflect an integration of disciplines and promote the creative blending of the best practices of different theoretical models.

Not only must teachers and administrators work from a values base, but the classroom itself should have a system of operating values that the students understand and accept. Our classroom values might include the following:

- Everyone has the right to feel safe and will be protected from physical and psychological abuse.
- Everyone has the right to personal space, and this right will be protected.
- The personal property of each class member will be respected and protected.
- Learning and classroom activities are important and will be protected despite interruptions.
- Each member of the class is important and will be treated with respect.

Our belief system sets forth the fundamental values by which the classroom operates. Any correction of behavior or disciplinary action can be traced back to a violation of the classroom values. The adults actively model and mediate these values so students can come to understand how they are interpreted through behavior.

Classroom Structure

Many troubled students find change confusing and distressing. They do not adapt well to shifts in routine or situations in which expectations are unclear. These students perform best when the environment is predictable and the behavior of adults is consistent. Level II of the PEP model identifies four structural components that interact to create a psychologically safe and predictable learning environment: (1) level system and data collection; (2) rules, rituals, and routines; (3) schedule; and (4) organization of the environment.

Data Collection and Systems

The first step in collecting data is to decide what information will be useful in tracking progress. Most teachers will want data in at least two broad areas: student conduct and academic behavior. Student conduct behaviors might include following directions, keeping hands and feet to self, and appropriate verbal interactions. Academic behaviors might include completing assignments on time, completing assignments to accuracy, a[illegible] completing homework.

Some of the many ways to collect data include awarding points on a timed cycle (e.g., every hour), subtracting points for violating standards, or periodically assessing behaviors on a rating scale. Students receive feedback on their ratings or counts and thereby come to understand behavioral expectations and how they measure up to them. Of course, these expectations are reasonable, attainable, and held constant and are, therefore, predictable.

Feedback hour by hour and day by day is helpful, but the impact of data collection can be made stronger by tracking behavior over many days and helping students see their own patterns of conduct. Charts and graphs give a good deal of information in an uncomplicated form. An accompanying level system can help motivate behavior gains by linking them to status or privileges in the classroom.

Level systems can be simple or quite complex, depending on the ages of the students and the design of the classroom. Simply, the system acknowledges student progress by according increasing privileges and increasing independence and trust as students move to higher levels. Increasing responsibilities also are incorporated for both conduct and academics. For example, an entry-level student may have homework once a week, but a student on an advanced level has homework three times weekly. Entry-level students must have a teacher escort in the halls at all times, but higher-level students may use a pass and walk through the halls unescorted. This may seem a privilege to students but, in effect, it is practice in building responsibility. The student is learning to act responsibly without adult supervision.

The level system adds continuity to the environment, is a mechanism for feedback, and provides a stable measure of progress. For more on this subject, see Bauer and Shea (1988) and Beuchert-Klotz (1987).

Rules, Rituals, and Routines

Another systems-based feature of the classroom is the concept of rules, rituals, and routines. In a predictable environment, the rules are concrete and definite. For example, when we enter an art museum, there are signs everywhere stating that we are not to touch the exhibits. In addition, there are uniformed guards posted throughout. Occasionally, a guard can be heard cautioning a too-curious visitor. There is absolutely no question about the rules of conduct at the museum. On the other hand, a person visiting a Japanese restaurant for the first time is faced with unfamiliar menu items, unfamiliar seating styles, and unfamiliar utensils. The "rules" are somewhat uncertain and, therefore, so is behavior.

Effective classroom rules are unambiguous, posted clearly, and reviewed at least daily. There are only as many rules as students can remember (five, plus or minus two), and they are stated positively. Stating rules positively enables us to praise students for adhering to them. It is effective to say, "Thanks for raising your hand, Joe," but ineffective to say, "I'm glad you are not talking out." The rules are drawn directly from the classroom values.

Routines are, essentially, good habits. Many students live in environments where life is turbulent and good habits are not easily formed. There may be no established household routines, family dinner hour, or bedtime convention. The absence of regular patterns of expected behavior raises anxiety because uncertainty prevails. Regular routines in the classroom bring a sense of order and stability, and they help create a feeling of security. Typical routines include establishing when one can take a water break, how to let the teacher know that work is completed, and how to fill time acceptably when work is finished before the period is up. When consistently followed, routines can eliminate a good deal of confusion and conflict.

Rituals are first cousins to routines and are especially helpful in bringing structure to a troublesome situation. For example, imagine that a group of intermediate students has difficulty settling in after gym. The walk from the gym to the classroom is a noisy race to the water fountain. Once in the classroom, there is milling about and loud talking. It takes ten minutes for transitions before everyone is settled and ready for math. The teacher might introduce a ritual to solve the problem. First, the group lines up in the gym before going out into the hallway. Next, they review the rules for appropriate behavior in the hall, then walk halfway to the room and stop at a pre-determined point. (Naturally, the teacher enthusiastically affirms individuals and the group for their performance.) Everyone enters the classroom without getting a drink. Once all are seated in their areas, the group takes a ten-second quiet time. Students are called individually or in small groups to go to the water fountain and are publicly appreciated for their courtesy.

> Rules, rituals, and routines carefully followed in the classroom reduce anxiety by making the environment safe and predictable.

Rules, rituals, and routines carefully followed in the classroom reduce anxiety by making the environment safe and predictable. There are no surprises concerning what is expected of the student, and the adult's behavior is consistent.

The Schedule

A good daily schedule is the heart of classroom structure. The schedule establishes the events of the day and helps motivate students through difficult tasks. Using the Premack principle, the day is divided into manageable units of time, so that something generally considered "difficult" is followed by something generally considered less difficult. For example, math is followed by group meeting, which is followed by reading, which is followed by recess. In order to get to recess, the group must get through math, group meeting, and reading within the allotted time. Group meeting is not as attractive as recess, but it may be more attractive than math. Therefore, the student is motivated to complete math and move on to group meeting with the objective of recess in mind.

The teacher follows the schedule very closely and uses it to cue students to complete tasks: "You've completed six of your ten math problems. If you keep working, you'll finish in time for group meeting in fifteen minutes." If the student doesn't finish, participation in group meeting is still required; but his math assignment must be done before he goes to recess.

Maintaining the daily schedule eliminates any confusion about the planned events of the day and relieves the teacher of making arbitrary decisions. For example, sometimes one of our groups will have a difficult day. There's been lots of arguing, task avoidance, and oppositional behavior. Finally, during gym, the group is cooperating for the first time all day in a game of kickball. The teacher looks at the clock with dismay, noting that it's time to return to the classroom. What is the better decision: let a good thing continue a little longer, or take on the formidable task of ending the game at a high point of excitement? The teacher might be wise to take a lesson from the producers of television mini-series; end the game now so it will retain attractiveness as a contingency later on. If the teacher violates the schedule this time, the students get the message that the schedule is not really important and is negotiable or subject to the teacher's fancy. Does this mean there is to be no spontaneity in the classroom? Of course not. Spontaneity is exciting and novel by definition. As long as it happens on occasion and is not "standard operating procedure," it is a wonderful motivator for learning.

Organization of the Environment

In keeping with the objective of predictability and order, we can do much to further the cause by organizing the environment. Organization of the environment fits hand in glove with the three R's: rules, rituals, and routines. A well-organized classroom has a place for almost everything. Each student has a desk and a prescribed area for it. There is a place to hang coats, store boots, and place lunch bags. Students know where to put folders, where books are shelved, and how and when to access "free time" materials. The classroom is divided into individual and group work areas, with attention to strategic location. There may be special areas for play and others for projects. Such a setting adds to a student's sense of well-being and "ownership" of the classroom by clarifying expectations and projecting a sense of order and predictability.

It is equally important to create a classroom environment that "belongs" to the group. The teacher should post student-created artwork, therapeutic pictures and sayings, and personal artifacts, just as we would decorate our own work spaces with symbols of our personalities and experiences.

Classroom Climate and Group Process

The conditions for growth are established by the values system and by the elements that bring structure and predictability to the environment. The four components included in Level III are:

- instructional style,
- management style,
- group meetings, and
- responses to feelings and emotional well-being.

These components create the emotional climate of the classroom and embody the "art" of effective teaching. We know from the work of Morgan (1979) and Brophy & Evertson (1974) that students who experience academic difficulties, are struggling, or are anxious or alienated, perform best in classrooms where there is a positive, personal, non-competitive approach. The components discussed here combine to create such an environment.

Instructional Style

The Re-ED values system highlights the importance of competence in schoolwork and suggests the significance of effective instruction. There has been much written about what makes for "good teaching," yet research on effective teaching of students with behavior disorders is rather limited. Early work by Kounin (1970) has had a strong impact on the field. Using sophisticated videotaping apparatus, he collected extensive samples of teacher and student behavior from more than 80 classrooms. Observations included non-handicapped students as well as a subsample of mainstreamed students. In analyzing the tapes for student work involvement and prevention of misbehavior, Kounin discovered dimensions of teacher style that correlated significantly with students' behavior and work involvement:

Effective Behavior Management (Kounin)

With-it-ness and overlapping. Effective teachers have eyes in the backs of their heads. They are attuned to the behavioral "tone" of the group. Kounin called this phenomenon "with-it-ness." Overlapping refers to the teacher's ability to deal simultaneously with multiple competing responsibilities. For example, an effective teacher can be working with a small group and keep them going while she assists an individual student who has approached her for help.

Smoothness and momentum. Effective teachers manage transitions well, keep things moving along in the classroom, and have little "down time."

Group alerting and accountability. Effective teachers maintain group focus during recitations in contrast to becoming immersed in a single child. They hold students accountable by making sure assigned tasks have been completed and following up on conditions set forth in the classroom.

Valence and challenge arousal. Effective teachers enhance the attractiveness of classroom activities. They arouse motivation to meet the challenge.

Seatwork variety and challenge. Effective teachers program independent learning activities with variety and intellectual challenge, especially in seatwork settings. The work is just challenging enough to give the student a sense of accomplishment.

Kounin concluded that these management techniques apply to normal students, to boys as well as to girls, to the group as well as to the individual, and across all grade levels. He emphasized that effective application depends on an awareness of ecological variables and teacher sensitivity to student needs.

Management Style

Three concepts highlighted in the Re-ED principles offer guidance in the development of a management style: self-control can be taught, symptoms should be addressed directly and trust between the child and adult is essential. The keys to effective management are: (1) affective sensitivity and (2) knowledge of behavior management principles as applied to the classroom (Fecser, 1989).

Affectively sensitive teachers know students well. They know their ecologies, histories, vulnerabilities, strengths, weaknesses, fears, and aspirations. They know when they're losing involvement and how to gain it. Based on their knowledge of the student, they can design behavioral strategies and motivating techniques. They know when to "come on strong" and when to "back off" to maximize impact on the student. They can follow through on contingencies and enforce consequences, yet maintain a relationship with the student. They are sensitive to the needs of the student and make arrangements for those needs to be met at the antecedent level in socially appropriate ways. In short, the teacher applies behavior management principles in a "personalized" fashion (Morgan, 1979). Management style is largely based on trust between the child and the adult.

Group Meetings

"The group is very important to young people, and it can be a major source of instruction in growing up." (Hobbs, 1982, p. 22) Within the structured environment of the classroom, under conditions of trust, students can be helped to share self-evaluations with classmates. Sharing of vulnerable moments, when this risk-taking is supported and accepted, can have a strong effect on the development of group cohesion. Students can begin to take the risk to trust others. We can establish the conditions under which such connections can begin and grow in the classroom through guided group meetings.

All meetings begin with a review of the group meeting rules, which include being recognized to speak and respecting the contributions of others. At first, meetings are run by the adults to model the process. As students become proficient at participation, leadership is passed to the group. Three types of group meetings can be conducted in the classroom:

> **Business meetings.** These low-threat meetings might be used to facilitate the acceptance of the "meeting" concept. Business meetings are held to discuss such class projects as fund raisers or special events and follow a structured agenda.
>
> **Positives meetings.** Positives meetings are held daily, usually at the close of the day. In a group format, each person says something positive about himself or herself and something positive about at least one other member of the group. The comments are focused affirmations and relate to an observation made during that day. Because they receive affirmations so infrequently, many students find it as difficult to accept affirming feedback as they do corrective feedback. Positives meetings offer practice at becoming comfortable with praise.
>
> **Evaluation or goal meetings.** The most challenging of the three meetings to conduct are daily goal meetings. At the beginning of the week, each student selects a goal and makes a commitment to achieve it. The goal is usually a social one and addresses a behavior that may affect the group in some way. For example, "keeping area clean and organized" represents a low-threat goal. A skillful teacher can facilitate meetings so that the group has input into the selection of the goal for each member and the development of a "plan" for attaining the goal. Often, the plan involves support from the group.

It may take several sessions to establish goals for all students. Once that is done, the group meets daily to review goals and plans. The teacher and group members give individual feedback on the prior day's goal attainment. Ideally, each student will give a self-evaluation, identifying specifically what he or she did to meet the goal or identifying the roadblocks that prevented him/or her from doing so. Plans are amended to provide a greater opportunity for success. At the end of the week, those students who have attained their goals are rewarded with a pre-determined bonus. New goals are selected as students master current goals. However, if a student is struggling with a goal for two or more weeks, it is appropriate to put it aside and select a goal with which a student can be successful.

Social skills training also is conducted in a group setting in which students give and receive feedback. Although the content is instructional, these sessions, when conducted in a warm and positive environment, can build esteem and carry considerable emotional content. Social skills training as discussed in Goldstein's Prepare Curriculum (1988) is an essential feature in preparing students for successful reintegration.

Responses to Feelings and Emotional Well-Being

This is certainly the most intangible of the components of an effective classroom and, perhaps, the most important. "Trust between the child and adult is essential, the foundation on which all other principles rest, the glue that holds teaching and learning together, the beginning point for re-education." (Hobbs, 1982, p. 22)

It is equally important to create a classroom environment that "belongs" to the group. The teacher should post student-created artwork, therapeutic pictures and sayings, and personal artifacts, just as we would decorate our own work spaces with symbols of our personalities and experiences.

Morgan (1976) attempted to study empathy in the classroom and concluded:

> It does not appear to be practical or judicious for educators to merely adopt or adapt the assessment devices used in psychotherapy. Teaching necessitates a more active and directive type of interaction than that which occurs in the classic therapy situation. Indications are that empathy in teaching is different, in that more is required than verbal communication of understanding. (p. 167)

In an attempt to define empathy in the classroom, Morgan (1979) developed a questionnaire and administered it to children in special education settings for emotionally disturbed students and to a control group of non-handicapped students. The results of the interviews indicated a qualitative difference between responses of the handicapped and non-handicapped students. Non-handicapped students related almost entirely to the teacher in terms of the teacher's ability to make academic work understandable, whereas handicapped students attended predominantly to the affective sensitivity of the teacher. The responses of students to the interview questions focused on what the teacher said and did that gave them a sense of security and comfort about personal as well as academic difficulties. The majority of responses by handicapped students referred to action-oriented teacher behaviors that, when codified, fell into four clusters. From these, Morgan derived the following delineation of modalities and behaviors by which teachers of emotionally disturbed students express empathy:

Teaching with Empathy (Morgan)

Management of Instruction

- Devises legitimate reasons to change an activity when the child is frustrated.
- Begins with a guaranteed success.
- Personalizes lesson to teach concepts.

Organization of the Environment

- Gives the child a time and place to be alone and quiet.
- Does not send the child to someone else for punishment.
- Room itself (space and furnishings) is organized and uncluttered.

Responses to Feelings and Emotional Well-Being

- Senses when the child is on the verge of trouble and offers help before it's requested or a blow-up occurs.
- Identifies for students feelings they are unable to verbalize.
- Stays physically close and lavishes assurances.

Interpersonal Qualities

- Has a sense of humor.
- Is warm and can openly show affection for the child.
- Appears calm and relaxed, speaks softly and smiles frequently.

Long (1986) discusses the importance of the teacher's self-awareness of feelings in relation to the high emotional intensity of the student. He introduces the Conflict Cycle and examines how adults can unintentionally get caught up in a power struggle with students if they are not trained to detect the emergence of the cycle. Wood and Long, in *Life Space Intervention: Talking with Children and Youth in Crisis* (1991), consider the importance of learning to decode children's behavior to discover the underlying feelings that drive it. The book details a therapeutic technique that maximizes the opportunity for insight during crisis. Life Space Interviewing, originated by Fritz Redl and David Wineman and developed by Nicholas Long, offers teachers and other practitioners a valuable tool to unlock hidden or disguised sources of irrational behavior.

Troubled students benefit from teachers who are affectively sensitive and keenly aware of the emotional impact they make on their students. Effective teachers require training in techniques to help students understand and express feelings.

Individual Planning

The ideal classroom setting is governed by a clear values system in which the events of the day and the behavior of the adults are predictable and safe, and where feelings are freely expressed, accepted, and brought under self-control. Such a setting affords opportunities to address specific, individual needs of each student. Assessment of academic, ecological, behavioral, and social-emotional needs and development of objectives and remediation strategies can optimally occur only in an environment that facilitates social-emotional growth.

Summary

The Re-ED model highlights the interaction of systems to create a harmonious "whole environment" that considers the "whole child." Too often, educators and therapists start with IEP/ISP objectives in their planning and fail to give adequate attention to the background against which those goals are set. This model enlarges the scope of the classroom and acknowledges the tremendously important roles of caring adults in the lives of troubled and troubling children and youth.

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